



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

AN OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY
OF
WESTERN EUROPE

BASED ON ROBINSON'S INTRODUCTION
TO THE HISTORY OF WESTERN
EUROPE

BY NORMAN MACLAREN TRENHOLME, PH. D.
AND CARL CONRAD ECKHARDT, A. M.,
OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HIS-
TORY OF THE UNIVER-
SITY OF MISSOURI

COLUMBIA, MISSOURI
Press of E. W. Stephens
1905

D

103

.RW

T8

1905

RRC

Gl
Curt
Paul Christopher
10-8-90

PREFACE.

This outline has been prepared primarily as a guide to members of the Kansas City Teachers' Club in their study of Professor J. H. Robinson's well-known and scholarly work entitled "An Introduction to the History of Western Europe." With the aim in view of aiding the student as much as possible, the chapters, and especially the more difficult ones, have been very carefully and fully outlined and no essential features of development omitted. In certain parts, however, it has been necessary to summarize several pages in one brief sentence and in such cases the student is usually referred to the pages in the book dealing with the question. For other references and collateral reading recourse should be had to the notes and bibliographies in the book itself. It is hoped that on the whole those who use the outline will find it helpful and stimulating to further study within the period with which it deals.

The writer has himself prepared Part I of the outline and has revised Part II, which was kindly prepared for him by his assistant, Mr. C. C. Eckhardt, so that the two parts are practically uniform.

N. M. Trenholme.

University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

January 7, 1905.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

Part I.

I. Introductory. The Historical Point of View	4
II. Western Europe before the Barbarian Invasions	5
III. The General Invasions and the Break-up of the Roman empire... ..	6
IV. The Rise of the Papacy	8
V. The Monks and the Conversion of the Germans.....	9
VI. Charles Martel and Pippin	11
VII. Charlemagne	12
VIII. The Disruption of Charlemagne's Empire	14
IX. Feudalism	16
X. The Development of France	20
XI. England in the Middle Ages	22
XII. Germany and Italy in the Tenth and Eleventh Centuries..	25
XIII. The Conflict between Gregory VII and Henry IV.....	29
XIV. The Hohenstaufen Emperors and the Popes	30
XV. The Crusades	33
XVI. The Mediaeval Church at its Height.....	35
XVII. Heresy and the Friars	37
XVIII. The People in Country and Town	38
XIX. The Culture of the Middle Ages	40

Part II.

XX. The Hundred Years War	44
XXI. The Popes and the Councils	46
XXII. The Italian Cities and the Renaissance	48
XXIII. Europe at the Opening of the Sixteenth Century.....	50
XXIV. Germany before the Protestant Revolt	51
XXV. Martin Luther and his Revolt against the Church.....	53
XXVI. Course of the Protestant Revolt in Germany, 1521-1555	54
XXVII. The Protestant Revolt in Switzerland and England...	55
XXVIII. The Catholic Reformation—Philip II	57
XXIX. The Thirty Years War, 1618-1648	59
XXX. Struggle in England for Constitutional Government....	61
XXXI. The Ascendency of France under Louis XIV.....	63
XXXII. Rise of Russia and Prussia	64
XXXIII. The Expansion of England	65
XXXIV. The Eve of the French Revolution	66
XXXV. The French Revolution	68
XXXVI. The First French Republic	70
XXXVII. Napoleon Bonaparte	71
XXXVIII. Europe and Napoleon	73
XXXIX. Europe after the Congress of Vienna	75
XL. The Unification of Italy and Germany	77
XLI. Europe of To-day	80

AN OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY OF WESTERN EUROPE.

PART I.

I. INTRODUCTORY: THE HISTORICAL POINT OF VIEW.

1. **European History and what it should include:**
 - a. The broad scope of history illustrated.
 - b. Professor Robinson's object "to give an account of the chief changes in western Europe" since the fall of the Roman Empire. Necessity of condensation.
 - c. What should be studied in European history is the evolution of the present from the past.
 - d. Sympathy and consideration necessary in the study of the history of the past.
2. **Periods of History and the Unity and Continuity of History:**
 - a. No sharply defined periods in history. Changes occur very gradually and slowly. Examples.
 - b. The unity and continuity of history are terms employed to denote the regularity of historical evolution and the connection of events with each other in historical sequence.
3. **The meaning and significance of the term "Middle Ages:"**
 - a. Indefiniteness in regard to beginning of Middle Ages.
 - b. Middle Ages start roughly with the barbarian invasions of the 5th century. Earlier history of the Germans and their relations with Rome.
 - c. Survival of Roman civilization into the mediaeval period and its influence on Europe.
 - d. In present outline term Middle Ages will be used as signifying roughly the period 400 to 1300 A. D.
 - e. The so-called "dark ages" (400-1100 A. D.) not "stagnant and unproductive" as often considered.

II. WESTERN EUROPE BEFORE THE BARBARIAN INVASIONS.

1. **The character and extent of the Roman Empire:**
 - a. Roman Empire included all western Europe except Germany. Rhine and Danube frontiers.
 - b. Many diverse nations and peoples under Roman rule. Rome a great world state.
 - c. Bonds of union holding together the Empire:
 - (1) The well-organized Imperial Government guarding and regulating every interest in life.
 - (2) The common worship of the Emperor, compulsory on every citizen of pagan Rome.
 - (3) The splendid system of Roman Law, alike in every part of the Empire, and just and humane.
 - (4) Good roads; uniform money, weights and measures; common civilization.
 - (5) A common system of education due to Roman teachers but modelled on Greek culture.
 - d. Idea of permanence of Roman state during first four centuries of Christian Era.
2. **The Decline of the Empire and its causes:**
 - a. Loss of energy and self-reliance by Romans and decline in prosperity, due to:
 - (1) Oppressive and frequent taxation for the support of the Emperor and officials. The land tax and method of collecting it.
 - (2) The growth of slavery and general use of slave labor on farms and estates (villas). The various classes and conditions of slaves. "Coloni."
 - (3) Decline in population as economic evils multiplied.
 - (4) Great infiltration of Germans as "coloni" and as soldiers. Effect of this was to weaken the Imperial tradition and system of government.
3. **Culture, Morals and Religion in the later Roman Empire;**
 - a. Art and Literature change for worse. Tacitus (d. 120) last great Roman writer. Compendiums and manual take the place of classics and hold ground until the Renaissance.
 - b. Upward trend in morals and religion. Higher pagan ideals. Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius. Preparation for Christian beliefs.
 - c. Christianity's broad appeal. New ideas as to future life. Christian and pagan beliefs unite. Boethius (d. 524) and "The Consolations of Philosophy."

4. The Christian Church: Its organization, and its relations with the Empire:

- a. Character of the primitive or apostolic church; bishops, presbyters, and deacons instituted.
- b. Need of greater organization for the Catholic ("universal") church. Cyprian (d. 256) and his work "The Unity of the Church" (see Robinson, p. 20).
- c. Further church organization archbishops, bishops, priests, deacons, sub-deacons, church councils.
- d. Constantine and the Church. The Edict of Milan (313). The Council of Nicea (325).
- e. The Church in the Theodosian Code (438). Recognition of its liberties and privileges. Christianity the state religion.
- f. The Catholic church survives the Roman Empire and absorbs the new Germanic nations. It carries on Latin learning and Roman civilization.

5. The Eastern and Western Divisions of the Empire:

- a. The cause and meaning of the founding of Constantinople (330).
- b. Theory of unity of Empire in spite of division of territory.
- c. The survival of the Roman Empire in the east until 1453.
- d. Eastern Empire Greek and Oriental in character. Constantinople, largest and wealthiest city of mediaeval Europe. Her art and learning important.

III. THE GERMAN INVASIONS AND BREAK-UP OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

1. The Romans, Visigoths and Huns:

- a. The Visigoths forced across the Roman frontier by the Huns. Eastern Emperor Valens defeated at Adrianople (378).
- b. The Visigoths in the Empire. Alaric's revolt.
- c. Alaric in Italy. Capture of Rome (410). Alaric's death.
- d. The West Goths in Gaul and Spain (419).
- e. Dismemberment of the Roman Empire of the West.
- f. Attila, the "Scourge of God," and the Hunnish peril. Defeat of Huns at Chalons (451). The founding of Venice.

2. Italy under Theodoric the Ostrogoth (493-526):

- a. The Germans in Italy: Odoacer and the end of the imperial title (476).

- b. Conquest of Italy by Theodoric the Ostr (493), and the establishment of the East Gothic kingdom.
 - c. Position of Theodoric as ruler of Italy. Seizure by the Ostrogoths of Italian lands. Maintenance of Roman laws and customs in Italy.
 - d. Death of Theodoric (526). Weak point in Ostrogothic state was Arian religion. Theodoric's tolerance.
- 3. Condition of Politics and Culture in Europe in 6th Century:**
- a. The Germanic kingdom of Western Europe. Alliance between rulers of different peoples.
 - b. Rapid decline in science, art, and literature. Boethius (d. 525) and Cassidorus (d. 575).
 - c. The dark ages of culture. Disappearance of libraries and schools. General illiteracy exemplified by Gregory of Tours (d.594).
- 4. The Imperial reaction under Justinian. The Lombards:**
- a. Belisarius conquers the Vandals and Ostrogoths.
 - b. Italy held by the Eastern Empire, 553-566.
 - c. The Lombards conquer Italy. Character of their occupation. Conquest not a complete one. Lombard rule lasts two hundred years.
- 5. The Franks and Western Europe:**
- a. Why the Franks are important. Permanence of their kingdom and their influence in Europe.
 - b. Early location of Franks along lower Rhine. Their method of expanding. Retention of strength.
 - c. Clovis (486-511), and his conquests in Gaul and Germany. His conversion to orthodox Christianity (486) and its importance.
 - d. Gregory of Tours' picture of Clovis. The union of the Franks under one king.
 - e. The successors of Clovis. Growth of Frankish power in spite of civil wars and murders.
 - f. Extent of Frankish territory by 555; Neustria, Austrasia and Burgundy. Union under Dagobert (628-638), the last strong Merovingian.
 - g. Danger to Frankish unity through increase in the power of nobles as petty magnates.

- h. The rise of the Mayors of the Palace and the union of the Frankish kingdoms under Pippin of Heristal, the Austrasian Mayor.
 - i. Charles Martel succeeds Pippin (714).
- 6. The Fusing of Romans and Germans. Germanic Law:**
- a. Number of barbarian invaders not very large.
 - b. Adoption of Roman language and customs by Germans. The new Romance tongues originate.
 - c. Friendly relation between races, save when Germans were Arian heretics.
 - d. Contrast between Roman and Germanic law. The "Laws of the Barbarians." The personality of Germanic Law exemplified.
 - e. Germanic modes of trial: (1) Compurgation, (2) Wager of Battle, (3) Ordeal.
- 7. Summary: Character of Germanic Europe:**
- a. Ignorance and lack of culture of new nations.
 - b. Effect of past civilization on Germanic races.
 - c. The Middle Ages a period of transition from barbarism to civilization and hence important.
 - d. The Renaissance and Modern Civilization.

IV. THE RISE OF THE PAPACY.

- 1. The Early Christian Church and its growth in Power:**
 - a. Importance of the church in European history.
 - b. Development of the idea of a "Catholic" church.
 - c. Strength of church lay in its power of adapting itself to needs of time and working with state.
 - d. Pagan and Christian ideas contrasted. The "otherworldliness" of mediaeval Christianity exemplified by monks and ascetics.
 - e. The power and influence of the church increased by: (1) The Church being considered the one agent of salvation, and (2) by the belief in miracles.
- 2. The Attitude of the Church toward the State:**
 - a. Mutual respect and support between the Church and the later Empire.
 - b. After the fall of the empire in West (476) Church tends to become independent of state. (This seen in the statement of Pope Gelasius (d.496) and the decree of Council of Rome (502), regarding interference by laymen in Church affairs.)

- c. Claim of supremacy over temporal power by Church.
- d. During time of anarchy and war Church usurps functions of state in government and administration.
- e. Importance in later history of position assumed by Church.

3. The Origin and Development of the Papal Power:

- a. Early prestige and prominence of the Roman Church.
- b. Apostolic foundation of Church at Rome. Belief in St. Peter as the first Bishop at Rome. St. Paul.
- c. The doctrine of Petrine Supremacy and its basis.
- d. Position of Roman Church as the mother church of the West.
- e. Gradual development of headship of Bishops at Rome.
- f. The Church fathers of the fourth and fifth centuries. (St. Augustine's reference to the Bishop of Rome as "Head of the Western Church.")
- g. Leo the Great (440-461) and the decree of Roman Supremacy of 445. Rivalry for headship of the Bishop of Constantinople (Eastern Church).
- h. Assumption of political headship in Italy by Popes in 6th century. Control of Roman government.

4. Gregory the Great (590-604). The Papacy as a World Power:

- a. Gregory's early life. His conversion to monasticism.
- b. Gregory as Pope (590). The transition at Rome in his time.
- c. The writings of Gregory. "Dialogues," etc.
- d. World wide influence of Papacy. Foundation of temporal power and authority of Popes.
- e. Missionary efforts of Pope Gregory in Western Europe. Spread of the orthodox faith.

V. THE MONKS AND THE CONVERSION OF THE GERMANS.

1. The Monks and their Place in European History:

- a. Importance of the monks as a class. Great men who were monks. Bede, Boniface, Abelard, etc.
- b. Various classes attracted by the monastic life. The religious, studious, unfortunate, and indolent.

- c. Origin and growth of monastic communities in Western Europe. Rules and regulations.
- d. The rule of St. Benedict (526) at Monte Cassino: the "novitiate," the threefold vow. Rational provisions.
- e. Influence and importance of the Benedictines in the political, religious, and literary history of Europe.
- f. Economic influence of monasticism. Manual labor, farming and agriculture, hospitality to travellers.
- g. The monks support the Papacy. Known as "regular" (under a "regula" or rule) clergy as contrasted with the "secular" ("saeculum" or world) clergy. Each class supplements the other.

2. The Monks as missionaries to the Germanic Races:

- a. Roman Church strengthened by missionary work.
- b. The mission to the Anglo-Saxons:
 - (1) Early history of Christianity in Britain obscure.
 - (2) Gregory the Great and Augustine (596).
 - (3) Missionaries of the Irish Church in Northern Britain. Conflict with Roman Church.
 - (4) The Council of Whitby (664) results in Roman victory.
 - (5) Effect on England of close connection with Rome. Culture and learning in the English monasteries. Bede (673-735).
- c. Missionaries on the continent of Europe:
 - (1) Lack of progress in Christianizing Franks and other tribes.
 - (2) St. Columban (Irish) in Gaul, Alemanna and Lombardy; St. Gall and the monastery in Switzerland named after him.
 - (3) St. Boniface (718), the "Apostle to the Germans":
 - (a) His origin (English) and training (monastic).
 - (b) Created a bishop, strongly attached to Papacy.
 - (c) Aided by Charles Martel meets with success in bringing Germans into Roman Church.
 - (d) Energetic methods (Odin's oak). Created archbishop of Mayence (732) and establishes German bishoprics.

- (e) Boniface's general reformation of Frankish Church results in bringing it under Papal control. The compact of 748.

VI. CHARLES MARTEL AND PIPPIN, 714-768 A. D.

- 1. The Frankish Kingdom and the difficulty of ruling it:**
 - a. Charles Martel and Pippin founders of the later Carolingian Empire.
 - b. Conflict between central and local power in mediaeval times exemplified in the case of the Franks.
 - c. Frankish dukes and counts and the difficulty of controlling them.
 - d. Charles Martel's wars against local dukes. His successful consolidation of Frankish territory.
 - e. Relations of Martel to the Church. His appointment of bishops and abbots from amongst his friends.
- 2. Mohammedanism and the Arab invasion of Western Europe:**
 - a. Mohammed (571-632) the Prophet of Allah (God). His life at Mecca and Medina, (Hejira, 622 A. D.).
 - b. The conversion of Arabia to the faith of Islam (submission to God).
 - c. The Koran (Mohammedan Bible) and its teachings. Similar in many respects to Christian and Jewish religions.
 - d. Simple organization and doctrine of Mohammedan church.
 - e. The early Caliphs (successors), and the Mohammedan conquests of the 7th century in Asia and Africa.
 - f. The Arab conquest of the Visigothic kingdom in Spain 711-718. Causes of their success.
 - g. The Arabs attack Aquitaine and southern Gaul.
 - h. The great invasion of 732 and the victory of the Franks under Charles Martel at Tours. End of the Arab attempt to conquer Western Europe.
- 3. The Assumption of the Crown by the Carolingians:**
 - a. Carloman and Pippin succeed Charles Martel as Mayors of the Palace in 741. The "do nothing" king.
 - b. Carloman abdicates and Pippin becomes sole Mayor.
 - c. The Pope sanctions the transfer of the crown to the Mayor of the Palace ("He who has the power in the state").

- d. The coronation of Pippin as King in 752. Roman and Germanic ceremonies.
 - e. A new theory of kingship developed through the anointing of Pippin by Boniface and by the Pope. Kingship based on "divine right" more than on election.
- 4. The Alliance between the Papacy and King Pippin:**
- a. Friendly relations between the Papacy and the Eastern empire strained by the image worship controversy.
 - b. The papal power in State threatened by the Lombards under Aistulf at middle of eighth century.
 - c. Pope appeals to Pippin in person for aid. First Frankish expedition to Italy relieves Rome (754).
 - d. Lombards again besiege Rome. Pope Stephen's letters to Pippin beseeching aid. Second Frankish expedition results in subjugation of Lombard kingdom.
 - e. The donation of Pippin to the Papacy of the lands in Italy formerly belonging to the Eastern Empire.
 - f. The probable beginning of the "States of the Church" seen in Pippin's grant.
- 5. General Importance of Pippin's reign, three points:**
- a. Strengthening of kingly power in Frankish state.
 - b. First instance of interference in Italian affairs of Frankish rulers.
 - c. The creation of a Papal State in Europe.
- 6. Significance of the Relationship established between the Carolingians and the Papacy. Future resort to Rome as source of power.**

VII. CHARLEMAGNE, 768-814.

- 1. General character and fame of Charlemagne:**
- a. Charlemagne the first great German of whom anything detailed is known.
 - b. The personal appearance and characteristics of Charlemagne.
 - c. Charlemagne well educated and an encourager of learning and a promoter of public works. Examples.
 - d. The great and mighty Charlemagne of romance: the hero of the Middle ages.
- 2. Charlemagne as a conqueror and extender of Frankish power:**

- a. Purpose of his conquests to unite all German peoples into one great Christian empire.
 - b. The conquest of Saxony and its difficulties:
 - (1) A wild country with a pagan population.
 - (2) The church and the Saxons. Enforcement of respect for religion by Charlemagne.
 - (3) Church gifts and tithes in Saxony.
 - (4) Crime against Church as bad as against state. Co-operation between church and state.
 - (5) The rise of towns in Saxony, especially the episcopal towns, Bremen, etc.
 - c. Charlemagne's conquest of Lombardy and his assumption of the Lombard crown (774).
 - d. The subjugation and incorporation in the Frankish kingdom of the great duchies of Aquitaine and Bavaria.
 - e. Charlemagne and the Slavs to the east. His victorious campaign of 789. The creation of "Marches" and "Margraves" along the border.
 - f. The invasion of Mohammedan Spain (778) and acquisition of the Spanish March.
- 3. The re-establishment of the Western Empire.**
- a. Charlemagne aids Pope Leo III, to gain supremacy in Rome in 799-800.
 - b. On Christmas day (800) Pope Leo crowns Charlemagne as "Emperor of the Romans" in St. Peters.
 - c. Contemporary reasons for this Imperial coronation as given in the annals of Lorsch, (Robinson p. 84).
 - d. The imperial power of Charlemagne. His coronation "a recognition of the real political conditions in the West."
 - e. Theoretical continuity of the Roman Empire.
 - f. Points of contrast between old Roman Empire and new Holy Roman Empire.
 - g. Troubles consequent on the assumption of the Imperial title by Germanic princes. Conflicts with Italy and the Papacy.
- 4. Charlemagne as an organizer and creator of Governmental Institutions:**
- a. Difficulties of governing Carolingian empire on account of scanty revenue and over-powerful officials.
 - b. Charlemagne's income from royal lands. His close supervision of plantations and farms belonging to him.

- c. Imperial officials and their duties: the counts, "hand and voice of the king," and margraves. Origin of titles.
- d. The royal commissioners ("missi dominici") a count and a bishop, and their changing circuits. Upholders of royal power.
- e. General oath of fidelity to emperor from all subjects over twelve years of age increases central power.
- f. National assemblies held in spring and fall to consider interests of empire, to issue "capitularies" (collections of laws), and discuss affairs of church and state.

5. Charlemagne as a promoter of culture and learning:

- a. Decline of learning and literature in Western Europe in the 7th and 8th centuries. Lack of papyrus and resort to parchment lessens number of books.
- b. Elements of Latin learning preserved by the Church. Clergy received some education though not much.
- c. Charlemagne's letters in regard to the defective education of the clergy, (Robinson, pp. 88-89).
- d. Charlemagne's admonition to the clergy to establish schools "in which the boys may learn to read."
- e. Monastic and Episcopal schools (Tours, Fulda, Corbie, Orleans, etc). The "Palace School" with Alcuin at its head. Teachers and writers, Paulus Diaconus.
- f. Charlemagne's interest in education a practical one. No attempt to revive Greek and Latin culture.
- g. Effect of Charlemagne's revival not as great as one would expect owing to political troubles.

VIII. THE DISRUPTION OF CHARLEMAGNE'S EMPIRE.

1. The Early Divisions of the Empire:

- a. Charlemagne's empire not expected to last. Division of 806 among three sons of emperor. Possible reasons for this division.
- b. Charlemagne survived by but one son, Louis the Pious, who becomes sole ruler (814).
- c. Reign of Louis the Pious (814-840).
 - (1) The six partitions of the empire among his sons.
 - (2) Rebellions of sons and quarrels over territory.
- d. Division of empire at death of Louis the Pious be-

tween Lothaire, Louis the German, and Charles the Bald.

- e. Lothaire defeated at Fontenay (841) by Louis and Charles in attempting to assert his supremacy.
- f. The Treaty of Verdun (843) and its importance:
 - (1) Assignment of German portion of empire to Louis, French to Charles, and Italy and the middle portion to Lothaire as emperor.
 - (2) Lack of unity and cohesion in Lothaire's territory as compared with that of his brothers'.
 - (3) Great importance of the Treaty of Verdun in the history of mediaeval and modern Europe.

2. Appearance of separate nations of East and West Franks indicated in the Treaty of Verdun and more especially by the language of the Strasburg Oaths, the earliest examples of the French and German languages.

3. Later divisions and changes in the empire:

- a. Death of Lothaire (855) and division of his territory among his three sons.
- b. The middle kingdom, between France and Germany, appropriated in 870 by Louis and Charles and divided.
- c. Italy and the meaningless title of emperor left to Lothaire's surviving son and his descendants.
- d. Western Europe appears divided into three great districts, analogous to modern Germany, France and Italy.
- e. Charles the Fat attempts to reunite imperial territory (884-887), as king of eastern and western parts.
- f. Failure of Charles to protect his kingdoms leads to his deposition and the substitution of national leaders in each half of the empire.
- g. Arnulf of Carinthia, an illegitimate Carolingian, king of Germany. His lack of power to control barons.
- h. Odo, Count of Paris, the hero of the siege of Paris, chosen West Frankish king (888).
- i. Boso of Vienna, raises up the kingdom of Arles (or Burgundy) east of the Rhone in Provence. Other small states.
- j. Growth in local power of dukes, counts, and great landowners owing to weakness of crown.

4. General causes aiding in the disruption of the empire.

- a. Poor roads and bridges made it difficult for the ruler to keep in touch with all parts of his kingdom. Disappearance and decay of the old Roman roads.
- b. Scarcity of money prevented the maintenance of an efficient civil service and army.
- c. Disintegration of the Frankish empire further hastened by new invasions (Northmen, Slavs, Hungarians, and Saracens).

5. Growth in Power of Great Landowners:

- a. Weakness of central authority and disturbed condition of country favored the growing power of the great landholders. Erection of fortresses for local protection and safety.
- b. Picture of mediaeval fortress and the warlike life of its inhabitants.
- c. Growth of class of landed proprietors in Western Europe whose large estates "manors" were tilled by serfs.
- d. The grant of immunity, or exemption from royal jurisdiction, frequently enjoyed by monasteries and later by individual landowners. promotes local independence.
- e. Usurpation of power by counts and margraves under Charlemagne's successors. Hereditary offices.
- f. Two forces tending to preserve the idea of a great state.
 - (1) The preservation of the idea of kingship and royal authority above feudalism.
 - (2) The feudal system of society and government which linked together the various classes in the realm by the tie of lord and vassal. The feudal state.
- g. Great importance of feudalism in European history.

IX. FEUDALISM.

1. The elements entering into early Feudalism:

- a. Feudalism the natural outcome of prevailing conditions in Europe in 9th and 10th centuries and of earlier customs.
- b. Two chief elements of feudalism, present in embryo in Roman imperial and early Germanic times, were:
 - (1) Land element: granting land to individuals not in full ownership but in possessory ownership "feudal tenure."

- (2) **Personal element:** the relation of lord and vassal.
- c. **The land element and its development:**
 - (1) Practice in later Roman empire for small landowners to surrender titles of land to powerful neighbors but to retain the use of it.
 - (2) Barbarian invasions force small landowners to place farms under monastic protection and lordship. Origin of the terms "usufruct" and "beneficium," (Robinson, p. 105).
 - (3) Growth in the practice of granting "beneficia" by kings and great landowners. "The 'beneficium' forms the first stage in mediaeval landowning."
- d. **The personal element and its origin and growth:**
 - (1) Development of class of dependent freemen, attached to men of wealth and power, under later Roman empire.
 - (2) The Germanic "comitatus" or band of followers attached to the person of their chief by oath. Obligations of mutual aid and support.
 - (3) Both the Roman and Germanic institution probably influenced the growth of the later personal tie of lord and vassal.
- e. **Combination of land and personal elements marks origin of feudalism.**

2. The Growth and Extension of Feudalism:

- a. **The feudal system a gradual and natural growth to meet the needs of the time.**
- b. **Methods by which the system was extended in Europe:**
 - (1) Great landowners find it advantageous to grant out lands to vassals on condition of their rendering service in war, at court and castle, and financial aid.
 - (2) "Infeudation" of land frequently followed by "subinfeudation" by vassal, thus creating "subvassals," etc.
 - (3) Many small landowners surrender their land to powerful lords and receive it back as a "fief."
 - (4) Growth of the idea of "no land without a lord."
- c. **The fief, unlike the earlier "beneficium," becomes hereditary in the family of the holder and can only be forfeited through treason to lord or failure to perform services.**

- d. Assured possession of fiefs fosters greater independence on part of powerful vassals notably in the case of the great dukes and counts of France and Germany.
- e. The feudal state in strong contrast to the national state. In former people are not directly dependent on king.
- f. Great lack of uniformity in regard to feudalism in Western Europe. France the best example of a feudal state.

3. Feudal Institutions and Customs:

- a. The fief "(feudum)" the central institution of feudalism and gives the system its name. Definition of fief.
- b. How the feudal relationship of lord and vassal was put in force:
 - (1) The act of "homage" and the oath of "fealty" by the would-be vassal with attendant ceremonies.
 - (2) The sacredness of the "feudal bond" exemplified by homage and fealty.
- c. Obligations of the vassal to lord very various. A matter of private agreement. Usual obligations were:
 - (1) General respect and loyalty towards the lord.
 - (2) Military service of forty days at vassal's own expense and shorter or longer castle guard. Origin of money fiefs granted in return for continuous military service.
 - (3) Service at lord's court and in his council. Development of feudal, judicial and administrative machinery.
 - (4) Financial obligations, reliefs (see Robinson, p. 108, note 1), alienation fees, three great aids, purveyance, etc., regulated by feudal contract as a rule.
- d. Various classes of fiefs, great and small. Nobility based on landholding by feudal or honorable tenure and on exemption from manual labor:
 - (1) Privileges of nobles and their survival. Partial exemption from taxation the most important.
 - (2) Difficulty of classifying feudal nobility with any exactness. Varying powers of dukes, counts, and marquises.

(3) Tenants-in-chief of king, lesser barons, simple knights.

4. The Complexity of Feudalism: the Register of Champagne:

- a. Practice of keeping feudal registers illustrates complexity of the system. The 13th century register of Champagne.
- b. The gradual growth of the county of Champagne from the possessions of Robert, Count of Troyes, (d. 923), and his heirs. Process of feudal aggrandizement.
- c. Twenty-six districts, each centering about a castle, in the county of Champagne illustrate feudal complexity.
 - (1) Each district held by the count from another lord, in all ten over-lords including the king. (Examples, Robinson, p. 114).
 - (2) Two thousand vassals owed allegiance to the count and many of these were vassals of the lords and had vassals of their own. (See diagrams Robinson, p. 115).
- d. Infeudation of money, houses, wheat, oats, wine, chickens, etc, by the counts of Champagne in order to get military retainers. Feudal bond made contract firmer.
- e. Manifest impossibility of considering a set and orderly feudal hierarchy to have existed.

5. The Maintenance of the Feudal System:

- a. Feudal Bond not strong enough to uphold system so that force was used to enforce obligations from vassals.
- b. Breaking of the feudal bond (1) when lord failed to protect vassal and (2) when vassal felt strong enough to defy his lord: (1) legal but (2) illegal breach.
- c. Reasons for war being the law of the feudal world. Various occasions for war in feudal society. Private warfare sanctioned in both France and Germany in Middle Ages.
- d. Military spirit in feudal society shown by the jousts and tournaments—mimic warfare—indulged in.

6. Checks on Feudal Warfare and Violence:

- a. Evil effects on trade and commerce of feudal turmoil.

- b. Efforts of the Church to promote peace and order.
 - (1) The Truce of God, restricting warfare to four days each week, imposed on feudal lords on pain of excommunication.
 - (2) The general peace of God (1086) during Crusades, warriors to fight the Moslem.
- e. Efforts of the kings, in France or England, to promote resort to courts. St. Louis (1270) of France and peace and order.
- d. Amelioration of feudal conditions due in large part to general progress and greater need of protection for commerce and industry.

X. THE DEVELOPMENT OF FRANCE.

1. **Political Conditions in France after the Disruption of the Empire:**
 - a. Great importance of learning about the beginnings of the states of modern Europe.
 - b. Survival of the royal power in western Europe in the 9th and 10th centuries and the ultimate triumph of the king and the national state over feudalism.
 - c. Political conditions in French, or West Frankish, kingdom under the Carolingian and early Capetian rulers:
 - (1) The election of Odo, count of Paris, Blois, and Orleans, as king in 888. Difficulties in the way of royalty.
 - (2) Reversion to Carolingian line with Charles the Simple. Rivalry between Carolingians and Capetians for the crown in 10th century.
 - (3) Hugh Capet (987-996) chosen king of the Gauls, Bretons, Normans, Aquitanians, Goths, Spaniards and Gascons. The French nation was not yet formed.
 - (4) The northern district of Francia gives its name to the dominions ruled over by Hugh Capet (formerly Duke of Francia).
 - (5) For over two centuries Capetian rulers of France possess little or no authority outside the "Royal Domain."
 - (6) Presence of hostile castles within Royal Domain and usurpation by vassals of royal rights.
 - (7) Low condition of French royalty in 11th century.

2. The Great Fiefs of Mediaeval France:

- a. Tenth century saw the formation of great French fiefs of Normandy, Brittany, Flanders, and Burgundy.
- b. Great fiefs were small feudal states built up and organized by exceptionally strong and able men.
- c. The Duchy of Normandy, founded by Rollo in 911, a powerful factor in French politics especially after 1066 when Norman duke becomes king of England.
- d. The Duchy of Brittany. Its Celtic population. Freed from Norman control by Alain of the Twisted Beard in 938. Not united to France until opening of 16th century.
- e. Invasions of Northmen lead to growth of Flemish cities (Ghent, Bruges, etc.). The count of Flanders unable to assert his supremacy over other lords.
- f. The French duchy of Burgundy one of a number of Burgundies. Ducal power in Burgundy not strong enough to permit of independence from royal control.
- g. Old duchy of Aquitaine abolished 877. Dukes of Aquitaine ruled over Gascony and portion of Guienne.
- h. Other important fiefs were the counties of Toulouse, Anjou, and Champagne (see ante p. 19).
- i. Modern France east of Saone and Rhone was in 10th century united into kingdom of Arles which in 1032 fell into the hands of the German ruler.

3. The Capetian Monarchy in the Twelfth Century:

- a. Complicated position of the Capetian kings: their position as feudal lords in northern France and as kings of France by divine appointment with high duties.
- b. King regarded by great vassals merely as a feudal lord and not as a national ruler.
- c. Remarkable continuity of Capetian house for three hundred years a factor in the triumph of French royalty over feudalism.
- d. Louis VI, the Fat (1098¹-1137), the first Capetian to make head against feudalism but only in bringing the Royal Domain under better control.

4. Philip II, Augustus (1180-1223), and the Increase of the Royal Power in France:

¹Louis VI did not become sole king until 1108, but from 1098 he was associated with his father, Philip I, in the kingship.

- a. Possession of western and southwestern France by the Angevin kings of England a difficulty to be overcome.
- b. Philip's policy of fomenting discord in English royal family. Henry II's sons and their rebellions.
- c. Richard I of England and Philip on Third Crusade. Return of latter and plots against Richard. Constant war between France and England in closing years of 12th century.
- d. John of England forfeits his French fiefs by feudal law and they are seized by Philip, all save Guienne.
- e. Enormous increase of the French Royal Domain through the success of Philip. General increase of royal power and influence. Alliance of king with towns against feudalism.

5. France under Louis IX and Philip IV:

- a. Creation of "appanages," or royal fiefs, by Louis VIII for his sons a retrogressive measure having bad results.
- b. Reign of St. Louis, or Louis IX (1226-1270).
 - (1) His suppression of the baronial revolt and settlement with England.
 - (2) His adoption and extension of the system of governing the royal domain by "baillis."
 - (3) His organization of the central government (3 bodies) and of the courts. Appeals from feudal courts to royal courts. Uniform coinage instituted.
- c. Reign of Philip IV, the Fair, 1285-1314.
 - (1) His absolutism based on well-organized government and support of Roman jurists his advisers.
 - (2) His contest with the Papacy leads to the first meeting of the Estates General, national assembly of France, in 1302 with representatives from towns as well as the nobility and clergy.
- d. Summary: feudalism checked in France by strong, able and energetic rulers and the foundation laid for the most powerful monarchy of western Europe.

XI. ENGLAND IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

1. **England to the Norman Conquest (1066):**
 - a. Special interest of Americans in English history. Influence of England on the history of western Europe very great.

- b. England after being Christianized is united under Egbert of Wessex (828) but is soon afterwards invaded by the Danes.
- c. Alfred the Great (871-901) stems the tide of Danish invasion and settlement, Christianizes the Danes, and divides England with them.
- d. Alfred revives and promotes learning and education in England. His own translations. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle."
- e. Outline of English political history from Alfred to the Norman Conquest. (Danish conquest under Cnut, reign of Edward the Confessor, etc.)
- f. Condition of England at the time of the Norman occupation (1066):
 - (1) Great Britain consisted of England, Scotland and Wales.
 - (3) Fusion of races. Government by king and "Witenagemot"; shires and local assemblies.
 - (3) Organized church in touch with continent.
 - (4) England backward in civilization but had makings of great nation and admirable government.
 - (5) The elements of feudalism present in Anglo-Saxon England. Great earls, bishops, and abbots.

2. The Norman Conquest and the reign of William the Conqueror:

- a. Claim of William, Duke of Normandy, to the English crown as having been designated the heir by Edward the Confessor.
- b. English crown assumed by Harold, Earl of Wessex, who disregards William's shadowy claims.
- c. Pope Alexander II favors the Norman claim and blesses William's expedition. Gathering of Norman forces.
- d. Normans and French defeat the English at Senlac (Hastings) and Harold is slain. William enters London and is crowned on Christmas Day, 1066.
- e. The English Feudal System established by the Conqueror. Every man the direct vassal of the king.
- f. William upholds old form of government (the Witenagemot, etc.), but increases the royal power by appointing sheriffs and restricting the power of the earls.

- g. The "Domesday Book," a register of the lands in England for taxational purposes, compiled by William's orders.
 - h. William's control of the English Church. Archbishop Lanfranc of Canterbury. Establishment in England of separate church courts. Homage to king from all bishops and restrictions on papal power in England.
 - i. General results of the Norman Conquest were to add a new element to the English people and change the character of English life (Extract from Cheyney's "English Industrial History." Robinson, p. 139).
- 3. England under Henry II (1154-1189):**
- a. The immediate successors of the Conqueror. Anarchy of Stephen's reign (1135-1154). Accession of Henry II (of Anjou).
 - b. Vigorous policy of Henry II. Destruction of baronial castles, dismissal of mercenaries, and restoration of order and justice.
 - c. Henry II's divided interests. His marriage with Eleanor of Guienne and Angevin empire.
 - d. Henry II's important judicial reforms:
 - (1) System of circuit courts and justices.
 - (2) Establishment of Court of King's Bench, five judges for the trial of royal cases.
 - (3) Development of grand and petty juries and growth of the Common Law.
 - e. Henry's famous quarrel with Thomas à Becket (first chancellor, later archbishop), over the jurisdiction of church courts. Murder of Becket (1170) and Henry's remorse and penance.
 - f. Later years of Henry II troubled by wars in France and rebellions on part of his sons.
- 4. Richard I. (1189-1199) and John (1199-1216). "The Magna Carta:"**
- a. Richard the Lion Hearted and his romantic career.
 - b. John a detestable king but has an important reign:
 - (1) Loss of English possessions in France (see ante, p. 22).
 - (2) Revolt of English people and grant of "Magna Carta."
 - (a) Discontent of barons with king's arbitrary rule.

- (b) John compelled by barons to sign the Great Charter (Runnymede, June 15, 1215).
 - (c) Chief provisions of Great Charter. Protection of individual. Importance of document (see Robinson, pp. 145-46).
 - (d) John's failure to respect the Charter does not affect its character as a permanent safeguard to liberty.
- 5. Origin of Parliamentary Government in England :**
- a. Continuation of opposition to absolutism and favoritism of foreigners under Henry III (1216-1272). The Barons' War and Simon de Montfort.
 - b. Origin of name Parliament applied to national council. De Montfort summons the "Commons" in 1265.
 - c. Model Parliament of 1295 (under Edward I); (Barons, Clergy, Knights of Shire, Burgesses, all in one body). Continued representation of the Commons.
 - d. Reign of Edward I (1272-1307) marks the close of the formative and mediaeval period of English history.

XII. GERMANY AND ITALY IN THE TENTH AND ELEVENTH CENTURIES.

- 1. Introductory: lack of unity in German portion of Carolingian Empire as compared with French. Germany until recently composed of a number of small states independent of each other. Prussia and the present German Empire.
- 2. The German Kingdom in the Tenth Century:
 - a. The stem duchies of mediaeval Germany. Power of their dukes due to (1) The old independent spirit of Germanic peoples, and (2) the need of strong leaders against the Northmen, Slavs and other barbarians.
 - b. Difficulty of uniting the duchies into a kingdom: Henry I (919-936), formerly duke of Saxony, respects ducal powers, checks Slavs and Hungarians.
 - c. Otto I, the Great (936-973), in Germany:
 - (1) Brings duchies into hands of his connections and makes them allies of royalty.
 - (2) Repulses the Slavs and establishes bishoprics along northeast border to Christianize the heathen.

(8) Inflicts a great and final defeat on the Hungarians (Magyars) at Augsburg (955) and forces them to settle in Hungary by the establishment of the Austrian "Mark."

3. The revival of the Holy Roman Empire on a Germanic basis by Otto the Great in 962 A. D.:

- a. Italy in the later 9th and early 10th centuries the scene of great political disorder and anarchy owing to the rivalries of Italian princes and Mohammedan attacks.
- b. Three Italian Emperors crowned, then Imperial title disappears until revived by Otto the Great.
- c. Otto's first expedition to Italy (951). His marriage with Adelaide and assumption of sovereignty in Italy.
- d. Otto's second expedition, at the summons of the Pope, and his coronation as Emperor (962).
- e. Important and disastrous results of the revival of the Empire. Three centuries of conflicts ending in the loss of Italy by emperors and weakening of power in Germany. Papacy the stumbling block.
- f. Otto the Great in conflict with the Papacy and the Romans. His three hostile visits to Rome.
- g. Succeeding emperors obliged to go to Rome to be crowned and frequently thereafter to restore order and obedience. Such expeditions burdensome and dangerous.
- h. Character of the revived Holy Roman Empire. Titles of King and Emperor compared. Imperial pretension always involved a struggle with the Papacy which in the end proved the stronger power.

4. The Empire and Germany in the early 11th century:

- a. The Saxon emperors followed by those of the Franconian house (1024) which rules until 1125.
- b. Conrad II, of Franconia (1024-1039). His acquisition of the "kingdom" of Burgundy and suzerainty over Poland. Stem duchies brought under royal control.
- c. Henry III, duke of Franconia, Swabia, and Bavaria, under whom the Empire reaches its height of power, largely on account of absence of strong rivals.

5. Henry III (1039-1056) and the movement for church reform:

- a. Danger to Imperial authority over church and clergy from the movement for reform in the church.
- b. Low spiritual condition of the church at this time largely due to its vast landed possessions:
 - (1) Practice of donating lands to churches and monasteries.
 - (2) Church lands held on feudal basis. Churchmen as vassals of lay lords owed feudal services.
 - (3) Bishops and abbots indirectly chosen by the king or by feudal lords instead of being freely elected by clergy.
 - (4) The right of "investiture," investing with insignia of authority, exercised by lay lords gave them control of ecclesiastical fiefs and frequently led to abuse of their powers.
 - (5) The church inclined to resent lay control and to claim authority over all ecclesiastical property ("temporalities") as against the claims of the king or other lay lord.
 - (6) Bishops and abbots, in Germany and elsewhere, placed in a complicated position, e. g.:
 - (a) As church officer with diocesan or other duties.
 - (b) As governor and manager of episcopal or abbatial estates.
 - (c) As vassal, to king or other lord, owing feudal services.
 - (d) As, possibly, count, or governor of a district.
 - (7) Importance of the king having some hand in the choice of prelates.
- c. Power of the church also threatened by the failure of many of the clergy to observe the prohibition on marriage:
 - (1) Need of clergy devoting their lives to service of God.
 - (2) Danger to church lands and possessions from clergy who had families to provide for.
- d. Simony, or the buying and selling of church preferment and services, another source of danger and weakness:
 - (1) Wealth and power attaching to church offices leads them to be sought after by mercenary claimants.

- (2) The sin of "Simony" (from Simon Magus, "Acts viii, 9-24") explained as the attempted purchase of the "gift of God."
 - (3) General practice of requiring gifts and fees in connection with higher offices of church and state.
 - (4) Simony amongst the lower clergy very general and very demoralizing to the church.
 - e. Dangerous condition of church at opening of the 11th century, threatened with anarchy and disruption owing to abuses and Papal weakness.
 - f. Corruption of the Papacy. Three rival popes in Italy (1045). Need of thorough reformation.
 - g. Henry III's reformation of the Papacy and its consequences:
 - (1) The Council of Sutri (1046). Deposition of rival popes and election of a German.
 - (2) Raising of the Papacy created a force in European politics dangerous to Imperial authority. Papal power soon to overshadow Imperial.
 - h. Difficulties to be overcome and abuses to be reformed before the Papacy could be supreme.
 - i. Henry III and the Papacy. Leo IX (1049-1054) and the papal office as independent of the emperor.
 - j. Leo IX as a reformer of abuses. The influence of Hildebrand (later Pope Gregory VII). Papal legates.
- 6. The Church asserts its independence of the state and begins to reform itself:**
- a. Pope Nicholas II, in 1059, decrees that papal elections shall be by the cardinals (origin of College of Cardinals).
 - b. Reform of the church and clergy by:
 - (1) Forbidding married clergy to exercise functions.
 - (2) Depriving kings and feudal lords of their control over elections of prelates.
 - c. Program of reform violently opposed, as in case of married clergy of Milan, or disregarded, as in the case of decrees against lay investiture.
 - d. Great task undertaken by Papacy apparent at the accession of Gregory VII in 1073.

XIII. THE CONFLICT BETWEEN GREGORY VII AND HENRY IV.

1. Pope Gregory VII and his Ideas:

- a. The "Dictatus" of Gregory VII and its claims as to papal powers, especially the powers of the pope over the civil government.
- b. Judgment in regard to papal claims should be tempered because of two facts (1) Character of civil government in Middle Ages; (2) Church claims right to interfere only when necessary.
- c. As pope Gregory VII upholds papal powers and pretensions by means of legates. His warnings to European rulers bear the stamp of sincerity and fervent conviction.

2. The first stage in the Conflict over Investiture:

- a. Death of Henry III (1056) leaving as heir a boy of six.
- b. Henry IV comes of age at 15 in 1065. The rebellion in Saxony begins the young king's troubles.
- c. Beginning of troubles with papacy. King's counsellors excommunicated. Henry fills Italian and German bishoprics.
- d. Gregory's decree of 1075 against lay investiture; a revolutionary measure if enforced.
- e. The Pope's letter reproaching the king for wicked conduct brought by three legates to Henry in 1075.
- f. Violent language of legates angers Henry and the German bishops. Deposition of pope at Worms (1076).
- g. Henry's letter to Pope Gregory and the latter's reply deposing and excommunicating the king (Robinson, p. 168).
- h. Defection of king's supporters. King suspended from office and given a year to reconcile himself with the Pope. Gregory invited to Germany by the princes.
- i. Henry's journey to Canossa and humble submission to the Pope (1077) ends first stage of conflict.

3. The last stage of Investiture Conflict:

- a. The German princes elect another king and civil war begins between the rivals.
- b. Henry IV again excommunicated and deprived of royal power by Gregory VII (1080).

- c. Reaction in Germany in favor of king. German clergy again depose Gregory. Death of rival king.
- d. Henry triumphs over Gregory in Italy and is crowned emperor by the anti-Pope in 1084.
- e. Death of Gregory VII in exile at Salerno (May, 1085). ("I have loved justice and hated iniquity, therefore I die an exile.")
- f. Henry IV's later troubles in Germany and Italy due to constant rebellions. Unsuccessful efforts to subdue Italy, 1090-95. Rebellion of his son Henry in Germany. His abdication and death (1106).
- g. Henry V (1106-1125) and Pope Pascal II continue the quarrel over investiture.
- h. The great conflict ended by the Concordat of Worms (1122). Free election in the presence of the king, or his deputy, and double investiture spiritual and lay. A compromise measure.

XIV. THE HOHENSTAUFEN EMPERORS AND THE POPES.

1. Frederick I (or Barbarossa), (1152-1190), and his ideas:
 - a. Interesting personality of Frederick Barbarossa (Redbeard). His advent marks emergence from so-called Dark Ages. More reliable and detailed information (Otto of Freising).
 - b. Frederick I's high ideals in regard to the Empire. His belief in Divine Right and disregard for papal claims.
 - c. Old difficulties in Germany and Italy; rebellious vassals, hostile popes, and independent Italian cities.
2. The Lombard Cities and their Development:
 - a. Beginning of the importance of the cities in politics.
 - b. The episcopal cities of Lombardy gain their independence and become "communes" (towns governed by the citizens).
 - c. Turmoil of Italian city life, internal and external feuds and conflicts. In spite of disorders Italian cities became centers of civilization in Middle Ages.
 - d. Pope finds natural allies against the German king and emperor in the Lombard cities.

3. Frederick I's early relations with Italy:

- a. The city of Milan tyrannizes over her neighbors and insults the envoys of Frederick. This, together with the wish to be crowned emperor, brings the king to Italy in 1154. First of six expeditions thither.
- b. The diet at Roncaglia where complaints are heard. Tortona besieged and destroyed by Frederick. Milan submissive for the moment.
- c. Frederick's relation with Pope Hadrian IV unfortunate. Failure of attempt of Arnold of Brescia to found Roman republic. Frederick, crowned emperor, returns to Germany leaving pope in the lurch.
- d. The second expedition to Italy (1158). Declaration of emperor's "regalia" by jurists from Bologna meant loss of independence for Italian towns.
- e. Increase of imperial revenues from towns under control of Frederick's officers. Preparations for revolt by towns against imperial officials and tax-gatherers.
- f. Revolt of Crema. Capture and destruction of town. Siege and capture of city of Milan (1162) and its destruction by command of the emperor.

4. Frederick I's later relations with Italy:

- a. Secret formation of the Lombard League against the emperor. Rebuilding of Milan by allies.
- b. Frederick glad to escape to Germany in 1167 while Lombard League extends its influence and founds the city of Alexandria (named in honor of Pope Alexander III).
- c. The war between the Emperor and the League 1174-76. Victory of League at Legnano (1176). A decisive battle.
- d. Peace of Constance (1183) a triumph for the towns and the Papacy over the emperor.
- e. The rise of the Guelf party in Italy and Germany. Meaning of word "Guelf" (Welf). Henry the Proud.
- f. Frederick's conflict with and victory over Henry the king of Saxony. Banishment of Henry and division of Saxony among Frederick's adherents.
- g. Death of Frederick while on the third crusade.

5. The reign of Henry VI (1190-1197).

- a. Previous coronation of Henry as King of Italy and his marriage to Constance, the Norman heiress of Sicily.

- b. Suppression of rebellion headed by the Guelf leader Henry the Lion. Effort of Norman, Tancred, to wrest Sicily from the Hohenstaufen aided by pope and by Richard I of England.
 - c. Henry VI's disastrous Italian expedition in 1191.
 - d. Second Guelf revolt (1192) suppressed with aid of Richard I's ransom. Death of Tancred and regaining of southern Italy and Sicily by Henry (1194).
 - e. Failure of emperor to have union of Germany and southern Italy recognized as permanent or have the princes make the imperial crown hereditary.
 - f. Death of Henry VI at the age of thirty-two in midst of projects for world empire. Leaves infant son, Frederick II.
- 6. Innocent III (1197-1216), the arbiter of Western Europe:**
- a. Rival kings in Germany after death of Henry VI. Philip of Swabia (Hohenstaufen) and Otto of Brunswick (Guelf).
 - b. Pope Innocent decides in favor of Otto out of apprehension of the Hohenstaufen power.
 - c. Successes of Philip in Germany cut short by his murder (1208). Otto then recognized as king and is crowned emperor at Rome (1209).
 - d. Breach between Innocent III and Otto owing to arrogance of latter and his invasion of Sicily.
 - e. Innocent puts forward the young Frederick of Hohenstaufen as a rival to Otto (1212).
 - f. Innocent's triumph over King John of England after a great struggle (1205-1213). (See Robinson, p. 138).
 - g. Climax of papal power and successes. The great Lateran Council of 1215 reforms abuses in the Church, takes measures against heresy, confirms the election of Frederick II and excommunicates Otto of Brunswick.
 - h. Death of Innocent III (1216) at summit of his power.
- 7. Frederick II (1212-1250) and the end of the Mediaeval Empire:**
- a. Character and ability of Frederick II. His preference for Sicily over Germany and the attention given his southern kingdom as regards law and government.
 - b. Frederick II attempts to hem in the papacy by im-

- perial possessions and incurs the hostility of the popes.
- c. Emperor forced to fulfil his crusading vow. His successes in the Holy Land of little value to him as he was under excommunication.
- d. Deposition of Frederick II by Pope and encouragement of rival kings.
- e. Collapse of Hohenstaufen power in Germany and Italy (French Invasion under Charles of Anjou) after death of Frederick II (1250).
- f. End of Mediaeval Empire and policy of attempting to unite Italy and Germany. Both countries become split up into petty states and principalities.
- g. Development of Italian towns as centers of independent states (e. g., Venice and Florence). Papal power in central Italy. Naples under French rulers; Sicily passes into Spanish hands (Aragon).

XV. THE CRUSADES.

1. Causes of the Crusades:

- a. The crusades the most romantic and fascinating events of the Middle Ages. Lasted over 200 years.
- b. Why the importance of the crusades is often overrated. Their influence on Europe more important than their details.
- c. History of Arabian and Turkish occupation of Holy Land. Ill treatment of Christian pilgrims by Turks.
- d. Appeal of the eastern emperor Alexius (1081-1118) for aid to Pope Urban II as head of western Christendom.
- e. Urban II's proclamation of a crusade at the Council of Clermont, (1095). His arguments and their effect. ("It is the will of God.")
- f. The various motives influencing the crusaders, religious, romantic, and material. Criminals among crusaders.
- g. Extraordinary privileges granted crusaders by the pope. Remission of sins, remission of debt, and protection.

2. The First Crusade (1096-99):

- a. Peter the Hermit and the preliminary popular movement with its disastrous consequences.
- b. Assembling of knights and men at arms for real first crusade in fall of 1096. The divisions and their lead-

ers, (Raymond of Toulouse, Godfrey of Bouillon, Baldwin, Bohemond, Tancred).

- c. Quarrels between the crusaders and the Eastern emperor. Nicaea occupied by Greek troops.
 - d. Crusaders helped by Armenian Christians. Baldwin gains the principality of Edessa and Bohemond that of Antioch.
 - e. Capture of Jerusalem by crusading army and massacre of its inhabitants (1099).
 - f. Rulers of Jerusalem: Godfrey (1099-1100) and Baldwin.
 - g. Four Christian principalities founded in Syria by 1100: Edessa, Antioch, Tripoli and Jerusalem.
 - h. Fate of new crusaders and pilgrims in 1101. Small Christian population in Palestine.
 - i. Military strength and dissensions among the enemy enable Christians to retain their conquests.
- 2. Important results of First Crusade; Militant Monastic Orders:**
- a. Three great military orders: Hospitalers, Templars, and Teutonic Knights.
 - b. The Hospitalers. Origin of the order and change to military basis. Wealth of order. Later at Rhodes and finally at Malta (Knights of St. John), cross of Malta.
 - c. The Templars. French in origin (1119). Defended pilgrims. "Poor soldiers of the Temple." Acquire great wealth and independence and on this account and because of their pride and insolence, order was abolished by the Pope in early fourteenth century through efforts of Philip the Fair of France.
 - d. Order of Teutonic Knights. Organized later in crusading period. Important afterwards for conquests over heathen Slavs and Prussians along the Baltic.
- 3. The Second, Third and Later Crusades:**
- a. Second crusade (1147-49) caused by capture of Edessa by Turks and by preaching of St. Bernard. Louis VII of France and Conrad III of Germany the leaders. Nothing accomplished.
 - b. The third crusade (1189-1192):
 - (1) Cause: the capture of Jerusalem by Saladin in 1187.

- (2) **Leaders:** Frederick Barbarossa of Germany, Richard I of England, and Philip Augustus of France. Mutual distrust and ill-feeling among them.
- (3) **Results:** truce made by Richard with Saladin (1192) by which pilgrims could freely visit Jerusalem.
- c. Fourth crusade (1202-1204) diverted by Venetians against Constantinople. Later crusades led by Frederick II of Germany and by St. Louis not important.
- d. Final loss of Jerusalem in 1244 and end of crusading era with thirteenth century.
- 4. Influence of the Crusades on Europe:**
 - a. Italian merchants, especially those of Genoa, Venice and Pisa, profit greatly by the crusades. Establishment of trading centers in the eastern cities by western merchants.
 - b. New avenues of trade and commerce opened up and importation into western Europe of new commodities.
 - c. Broadening of man's intellectual horizon by travel and intercourse with other peoples and customs. Acquisition by crusaders of new ideas and wider knowledge.
 - d. Probable influence of contact with Constantinople on Western Europe.
 - e. General signs of progress in Europe in 13th century. Growth of towns, of trade and commerce, rise of the universities. These improvements helped by the crusades.

XVI. THE MEDIAEVAL CHURCH AT ITS HEIGHT.

- 1. Features which made the Mediaeval Church different from modern churches:**
 - a. Membership compulsory on every one. A crime to refuse allegiance to it.
 - b. Besides income from property it levied direct taxes on the people—tithes.
 - c. It resembled a state—it had its own laws, courts and prisons.
 - d. It was organized like a state, being under one supreme head.
- 2. The government of the Mediaeval Church:**
 - a. All legislation was in the hands of the Pope. By

dispensations he could abrogate existing laws if he desired.

- b. The pope was the final and supreme judge of Christendom. Appeals to him.
 - c. The pope had control over the clergy at large, and could fill church offices.
 - d. Power of pope over bishops. Papal legates and emissaries. The Roman Curia or papal court of high officials.
 - e. Sources of the pope's income. Court fees; contributions; sale of benefices, etc.
 - f. The ecclesiastics under the pope.
 - (1) The archbishop and his "province." Provincial councils.
 - (2) The bishops. (a) Their spiritual duties. (b) Their temporal duties. (c) Elected by the cathedral "chapter."
 - (3) The priests and their duties.
- 3. Sources of the Church's power:**
- a. Its wonderful organization. (Explained above).
 - b. The exalted position of the clergy. A class apart.
 - c. The monopoly of the Church on salvation through the Sacraments.
 - (1) Peter Lombard's "Sentences" the authority on the Sacraments.
 - (2) The Seven Sacraments; "baptism, confirmation, extreme unction, marriage, penance, ordination, the mass" (or eucharist), essential to salvation.
 - (3) Two specially important sacraments.
 - (a) Penance—or the punishment necessary to absolve the penitent sinner from all guilt after he has confessed his sins. Power of priest to punish and absolve.
 - (b) The mass (Lord's Supper or Eucharist). By means of "transubstantiation" the body and blood of Christ were offered up anew to God. Importance of this sacrament (Robinson, pp. 212-13).
- 4. The clergy the dominant power in the Middle Ages:**
- a. The effectiveness of excommunication and interdict.
 - b. The clergy's monopoly of the advantages of education.

- c. Church democratic. Offices in the church open to all classes. Fresh blood constantly coming in. Merit counted more than influence or rank.
- d. Leo's description of the mediaeval church and those in its service (Robinson, pp. 214-15).

XVII. HERESY AND THE FRIARS.

1. The character of the mediaeval clergy and the work of the Church:

- a. The debt of western Europe to the church very great.
- b. Statements concerning corruption of the clergy can be easily exaggerated. Many prejudiced writers.
- c. Temptation to corruption arose from wealth of church livings.
- d. Chief forms of corruption: Simony, worldliness, sale of justice to highest bidder, immorality of parish priests.
- e. The better elements in the church denounced corruption and abuses. St. Bernard's testimony (Robinson, pp. 219-20).

2. Heresy and the Mediaeval Church.

- a. It consists not in criticising the evils, but the doctrines and ceremonies of the church.
- b. Two classes of heretics, distinguishable in Middle Ages:
 - (1) Critics of the doctrines and practices of the Catholic church—e. g., the Waldenses.
 - (2) Critics of the Christian religion—e. g., the Albigenses.
- c. Heresy regarded as treason against the state as well as against the church.
- d. Methods of opposing and lessening heresy:
 - (1) Internal reform. Innocent III and the Lateran Council of 1215.
 - (2) Extermination by the sword—Albigensian Crusade (Robinson, pp. 223-24).
 - (3) The Inquisition, extermination by secretly ferreting out and trying the guilty before a court. The suspected one was tortured until he confessed his guilt; rarely could he prove his innocence or escape death.
 - (4) The mendicant orders (friars). Heresy opposed by exemplary lives and by preaching and missionary work:

(a) The Franciscan Order (Grey Friars):

- 1, St. Francis of Assisi (1182-1226) the founder of the order. Story of his life (Robinson, 226-28).
- 2, Growth of order. Sanctioned verbally by Innocent III. Does missionary work in Europe and even in Syria.
- 3, Primitive organization gives place to definite rule (1228). Modification of vow of absolute poverty. Order acquires churches and buildings.

(b) The Dominican Order: the Preaching Friars (Black Friars).

- 1, St. Dominic (1170-1221), a well educated churchman. Story of his founding the order (Robinson, p.229).
- 2, Special object of Dominicans to extirpate heresy and spread the true religion. Papal sanction (1214).
- 3, Success and growth of Dominicans—60 monasteries in 1221.

(c) Contrast in organization between the orders of friars and older orders of monks. Former more military in character, "soldiers of Christ."

(d) Dominicans and Franciscans contrasted. Former were preachers and theologians, had charge of Inquisition, influenced the universities and produced great scholars and thinkers. Franciscans also prominent in field of learning.

(e) Papacy grants the friars many privileges. Their independence. Priestly powers allowed them.

(f) Natural opposition of secular clergy to the friars.

(g) Danger of corruption among friars. Bonaventura's admission in 1257.

XVIII. THE PEOPLE IN COUNTRY AND TOWN.

1. The Mediaeval Vill, or Manor, and the Serfs:

- a. Regrettable that so little is known of the life and condition of the people in the Middle Ages.
- b. Slow development of mediaeval towns and consequent unimportance of town life in early Middle Ages.
- c. Description of the mediaeval vill or manor and the

condition of the inhabitants, especially the serfs.

- d. Obligations of serfs to the lord exemplified in the case of a manor held by the Abbot of Peterborough.
- e. Mediaeval manor usually self-supporting and independent of the outside world.
- f. Monotony and misery of the average peasant's life in Middle Ages. Class spirit fostered.
- g. Attendance of manorial tenants on lord's court where disputes were settled and fines imposed.
- h. Abundance of land and lack of competition in farming and industry fostered serfdom.
- i. Increase of population, of competition, of commerce and use of money fatal to manorial system.
- j. Gradual emancipation of serfs through change in economic conditions after 12th century. Serfs gain freedom, also, by fleeing to towns.
- k. Survival of serfdom in western Europe to 18th and 19th centuries.

2. Towns and Town Life in the Middle Ages:

- a. Significance of town life in history. Towns as centers of civilization and commerce. Importance of their reappearance in western Europe in 10th century.
- b. Development of towns from villis and manors. Walled towns for protection and safety; their compactness.
- c. Towns at first controlled by lords and inhabited by serfs and dependents. Need of liberty for development.
- d. Increase of trade and commerce promotes growth and freedom of towns. Demand of townsmen in 12th century for charters from their lords.
- e. The French "communes" and their struggle for municipal liberties. Communal charters granted.
- f. Town charters: their character and contents (extracts from English town charters, Robinson, p. 240).
- g. Curious customs contained in charters (e. g., St. Omer). The town hall and its belfry, with bell and watchers.
- h. Merchant and craft guilds in towns to control and monopolize trade. Statutes and practices of guilds.
- i. Description of guild system of industry. Apprentices, journeymen, and master workmen. Regulation of trade. Good and bad features of guild system.

3. Mediaeval Trade and Commerce:

- a. Absence of trade and commerce in early Middle Ages due to poor means of communication, lack of demand for foreign goods, and general lack of money.
- b. Survival of commercial spirit in Italy. Trade of Italian cities with Orient even before the Crusades.
- c. Commercial activity stimulates industry and new articles are manufactured and sold in Europe.
- d. Eastern luxuries introduced in 12th century and lead to greater industrial and commercial activity as the demand for such articles increases.
- e. Mediaeval trade routes and commercial centers: Venice, Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen, Augsburg, etc.
- f. Restrictions in regard to mediaeval trade. Idea of a "just price." Lack of competition and ignoring of law of demand and supply. Efficiency of workmen.
- g. Prohibition of the church on taking of interest on money (called "usury"); Jews the money lenders.
- h. Ill treatment of Jews in Middle Ages. Their importance in economic history. Jewries. High rates of interest charged by them.
- i. Italian bankers (Lombards) in 13th century. Bills of exchange and damages for failure to pay loans. Employment of capital and profit sharing originate.
- j. Feudal tolls and duties, market dues, and lack of uniformity in coinage hindered commerce.
- k. Maritime commerce hindered not only by danger of wreck ("strand laws" and wreckers), but also by presence of pirates.
- l. The great Hanseatic League of German towns and their organization for foreign commerce. Hanse centers. Political importance of this league in Middle Ages. Its decline.
- m. Mediaeval trade regulated by towns and town guilds and was not on national basis. Idea of a "foreigner."
- n. Increase of wealth brought with it an increase in social status for merchant class. Growth in importance of the burgher element in European countries a very important change in 13th century.

XIX.—THE CULTURE OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

1. Languages and Literature of Mediaeval Nations:

- a. Interest of the student of history in the intellectual

and artistic life of the Middle Ages as well as its politics.

- b. General use of Latin as the language for scholars, statesmen, and diplomats throughout the mediaeval period.
- c. Two groups of modern languages, one Germanic, the other Romance. Latter a product of Roman influence.
- d. Early examples of German and Romance tongues: the Strasburg Oaths; the Gothic Bible of Ulfilas.
- e. The Old English or Anglo-Saxon tongue: Caedmon, the "Beowulf," the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle." Transition to modern English in 13th and 14th centuries.
- f. French the most important vernacular language in Middle Ages from the literary standpoint:
 - (1) Richness of mediaeval French literature and its influence.
 - (2) The French of the north and the Provencal of the south.
 - (3) The mediaeval French romances of the north. Cycle of Charlemagne: the "Song of Roland," the national epic of French.
 - (4) The Arthurian Cycle of romances and their popularity. Other cycles (Alexander, Julius Caesar, etc.).
 - (5) The "fabliaux," or short stories in verse, dealing with comic incidents of every day life. Fables and satires.

2.—The Troubadours and Mediaeval Chivalry:

- a. Provencal literature represented by the troubadours, often princes and lords, the poets of chivalry.
- b. The "jongleurs," singers, and troubadours greatly influence the literature and life of mediaeval Europe.
- c. Chivalry and knighthood as they appear in the literature of the period:
 - (1) Chivalry a spontaneous outgrowth of feudalism and might be called the spirit of feudal society.
 - (2) The conferring of knighthood and the ideals of honor, bravery, and courtesy attaching to the knightly order.
 - (3) The ideal knight pictured in the person of Sir Lancelot.

- d. The German "minnesingers" and their contribution to the literature of chivalry.
 - e. Various types of chivalry depicted in different classes of poems and at different times.
- 3. Literary and Scientific Knowledge in the Middle Ages:**
- a. Few books and little reading in Middle Ages. Knowledge of literature came from hearing the songs of the jongleurs and troubadours.
 - b. Almost complete lack of knowledge of the past. Fact and legend confused in popular songs and romances. Lack of real histories (Villehardouin).
 - c. Mediaeval popular science marked by credibility and superstition. Belief in astrology and alchemy by scholars.
- 4. The Arts in the Middle Ages:**
- a. Painting:
 - (1) Chiefly existed in the form of "illuminations," or colored illustrations, done by the monks in religious works and of a religious character.
 - (2) Secular books sometimes illustrated with pictures of every day life or of a fantastic character.
 - (3) Love of symbols and of fixed rules and ways of doing things apparent in both classes of pictures. Also nicety of touch and delicacy of execution.
 - (4) Illuminated letters and borders frequent.
 - b. Sculpture: widely used in Middle Ages for decoration and though well developed was subservient to architecture.
 - c. Architecture: the dominant art of the Middle Ages:
 - (1) Cathedrals and churches our chief artistic heritage from the mediaeval period. Importance of churches in life of the time.
 - (2) Romanesque architecture to 13th century. Cruciform churches, massive round pillars, round arches and vaulting.
 - (3) Gothic architecture: pointed arch, flying buttress, large windows with stained glass, towers, and pinnacles (Robinson, pp. 264-66).
 - (4) The wonderful sculpture on and in Gothic cathedrals. The mediaeval fondness for the grotesque exemplified.
 - (5) Secular architecture: guild halls and mediaeval castles.

5. Mediaeval Education:

- a. No universities and few schools of any note, in western Europe previous to the 12th century.
 - b. The career of Abelard (1079-1142) in search of learning. His own teachings and his text-book "Yea and Nay." His free opinions excite the opposition of St. Bernard.
 - c. Abelard's influence on higher education. Not, however, the founder of the University of Paris. His autobiography.
 - d. Origin of the University of Paris in the union "(universitas)" of teachers gathered at Paris with their students. The university granted special privileges by king and pope.
 - e. Growth of university at Bologna where Roman and canon law is studied. The "Decretum" of Gratian (1142) and its influence. Power of the student associations.
 - f. Founding of English universities, Oxford and Cambridge in the 12th and 13th centuries. Other universities. Later origin of German universities.
 - g. The academic degree a license to teach merely.
 - h. Character of students and simple method of instruction by lectures on the text-books.
 - i. University not fixed in one place. Changes of location not infrequent in Middle Ages.
 - j. Course of academic study took six years. Subjects were mental and moral science and natural sciences.
- ## **6. Aristotle, "The Philosopher," and Scholasticism:**
- a. Influence of Aristotle and his works, though Pagan. His commentators, Albertus Magnus (d. 1280) and Thomas Aquinas (d. 1276).
 - b. Scholasticism or mediaeval system of theology, philosophy, and argument. Its aridity. Roger Bacon's attack on scholasticism (Robinson, p. 273).

PART II.

XX. THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR (1339-1453).

1. The reign of Edward I (1272-1307):

- a. Conquest of Wales (1276-1284). Wales annexed to England in 1284.
- b. Struggle between England and Scotland affords France an opportunity to harm England by aiding Scotland.
- c. The growth of the power of Parliament in which the commons must be represented.

2. The Causes of the Hundred Years War:

a. Remote causes:

- (1) Enmity of long standing arising from relationship of English king as vassal of French king since time of William the Conqueror (1066-1087).
- (2) Edward III's claim to French crown through his mother.

b. Immediate causes:

- (1) Complications arising from holding of the Duchy of Guienne by English king.
- (2) French aid to Scotch.
- (3) For commercial reasons Edward III aids revolting Flemish towns.

3. Two periods of the war:

a. 1337-1380, in which the king of England is remarkably successful at first, but finally loses most of his French territory:

- (1) English victories at Crecy (1346), Calais (1347), and Poitiers (1356).
- (2) The estates general blame the French king for defeats and try to control him. Unsuccessful because violence of the rabble in Paris causes the people to welcome the rule of the king rather than that of the mob.
- (3) Treaty of Bretigny (1360) gives large grants to English king.
- (4) By 1377 English lose all but Calais and small section of southwestern France.

- b. 1380-1453, in which the English win great successes but are finally defeated by the French.
 - (1) Change of dynasties in England, 1399.
 - (2) Civil war in France gives Henry V (1413-1422) an opportunity to revive successfully his claim to French throne.
 - (3) Battle of Agincourt (1415) and other victories are followed by Treaty of Troyes (1420), whereby English king secures succession to French throne. Death of Henry V (1422).
 - (4) Mission of Joan of Arc leads to French capture of Orleans (1429), and crowning of Charles VII at Rheims (1429).
 - (5) English gradually lose all but Calais by 1453.
- 4. Results of the Hundred Years War:**
 - a. England ceased her efforts to extend her sway on the continent.
 - b. Growth of central power in France and of national spirit in both countries.
- 5. Wars of the Roses (1455-1485) between House of Lancaster (red rose) and House of York (white rose):**
 - a. Character of war—many battles with varying fortunes on both sides; the struggle merely one between nobles and their retainers; people as a whole not participating.
 - b. Monarchs during this period.
 - (1) Lancastrian Henry VI (1422-1461) overthrown in 1461 by Yorkist Edward IV (1461-1483), a strong king.
 - (2) Edward V (1483) murdered by Richard III, his uncle.
 - (3) Richard III (1483-1485), a strong king, defeated at Bosworth Field (1485) by Tudor Henry VII (1485-1509), sole claimant of the Lancastrian house.
 - c. The wars left the monarch free from opposition of nobles and Tudor despotism followed.
- 6. Centralizing tendencies in France; growth of royal power:**
 - a. Unsatisfactory conditions of French army before and during the Hundred Years war lead to establishment of a well-organized standing army, 1439. The permanent tax (taille) fatal to powers of the estates general.

- b. Louis XI (1461-1483) conquers last of great feudal lords hostile to the French crown. Charles the Bold of Burgundy (1417-1477) defeated, 1477.

7. Summary of the Period:

- a. Growth of central power in England and in France.
- b. Growth of national feeling.

**XXI. THE POPES AND THE COUNCILS, 1302-1449.
REFORM ATTEMPTED WITHIN THE CHURCH.**

1. Conditions necessitating reform in the church:

- a. The conflict between church and state and its consequences:

- (1) The attempt of the kings of England and France to tax the clergy causes Boniface VIII to issue the bull "Clericis laicos," 1296. Retaliatory measures of French king cause the pope to take a conciliatory attitude.

- (2) The jubilee of 1300 encourages the pope to dictate terms to the French king. This leads to calling of the estates general (1302), whereby the support of the French nation is given the monarch in his struggle with the pope. Death of Boniface (1303).

- (3) Further complications lead to the Babylonian captivity (1305-1377), at Avignon.

- b. The Babylonian captivity and its results:

- (1) Dissatisfaction arising from (a) French control of popes, (b) luxury at papal court, (c) increased papal taxation, (d) papal control of church benefices.

- (2) Opposition in England:

- (a) Statute of provisors (1352), prevents the pope from assigning benefices.

- (b) John Wycliffe (1320-1384).

- 1, His criticism of the papacy and its doctrines.

- 2, The "Simple Priests" and the English Bible.

- 3, Influence and spread of Wycliffe's teachings.

- c. The Great Schism (1377-1417):

- (1) The attempt to move the papacy back to Rome (1377) leads to the Great Schism. French and Italian popes.

- (2) Consequences of the Schism:

- (a) Schism extends throughout the church and the political world.

- (b) Questions resulting: 1, Is the papacy what it is represented to be? 2, Is the papacy necessary at all? 3, Is a church council superior to the pope? Can it heal the schism?

2. The Attempts at Reforming the Church:

- a. The Council of Pisa (1409) instead of working a reform merely adds a third pope.
- b. The Council of Constance (1414-1417):
 - (1) Objects: (a) to heal the schism, (b) to crush out heresy, which existed especially in Bohemia, (c) to reform the church.
 - (2) Results:
 - (a) Schism healed by election of Martin V and deposition of other popes. Decree "Sacrosancta" (1415) announced superiority of church councils over pope.
 - (b) Attempt to exterminate heresy is unsuccessful. The Hussite wars (1419-1431) follow burning of Huss and Jerome of Prague.
 - (c) Attempt at reform is unsuccessful. Abuses are enumerated and plans for reform proposed but council goes no farther.
- c. The Council of Basel (1431-1449):
 - (1) Purpose—to deal with heresy.
 - (2) Struggle between Eugene IV and council leads to dissolution of council, 1437, and summoning of council of Ferrara.
 - (3) Council of Basel chooses new pope but gradually declines in power.
- d. The Council of Ferrara—Florence (1438-1439):
 - (1) Circumstances leading to the proposal of a union of the eastern and western churches.
 - (2) Results of council. Pope recognized as superior to council.

- 3. Conclusion: the real issue during this period—Could reform be brought about "within" the church? Point of Conflict—was the pope superior to council? Conflict finally turned in favor of the pope. He refused to institute reforms, so reform comes from "without," by a revolution a century later.**

XXII. THE ITALIAN CITIES AND THE RENAISSANCE.

- 1. Italy the center of European culture in the fourteenth century.**
- 2. Political Italy in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries:**
 - a. The five great powers:
 - (1) Venice with its oligarchic government and great wealth.
 - (2) Milan with its despotic government of the Visconti family (1277-1450), and of the Sforza family (1450-1499).
 - (3) The republic of Florence controlled by rich merchants chiefly of the Medici family.
 - (4) The Papal States with the "Renaissance Popes."
 - (5) The Kingdom of Naples in the hands of the House of Aragon.
 - b. The commercial interests of the Italian cities first in importance.
 - c. The position and character of the Italian despots.
 - (1) The "condottieri," or leaders of mercenary troops; they frequently usurp the power of the princes.
 - (2) Machiavelli's "Prince" a true picture of the position and policy of the Italian despots.
- 3. The meaning of the Renaissance movement:**
 - a. It is the transition or changes taking place from the twelfth to the sixteenth century. It is not merely the revival of the study of the classics but a rebirth for man intellectually, involving new ways of thinking and of doing things.
 - b. It was a breaking away from the past, a revolution.
- 4. The men of the movement:**
 - a. Dante (1264-1321):
 - (1) Was a mediaeval man in his thought? Important because he preferred Italian to Latin in literary work.
 - (2) "The Divine Comedy" and "The Banquet" in Italian.
 - (3) Extent of Dante's knowledge and his appreciation of the classics shown in his writings (Virgil his guide).

- b. Petrarch (1304-1374):
 - (1) "The first modern man" because he was the first to throw himself into the study of Latin with the new spirit.
 - (2) Obstacles to the study of the classics at this time.
 - (3) Contrast between the attitude of Petrarch and Dante toward the use of Italian very marked.
 - c. The Humanists (Lat. "humanitas"—culture).
 - (1) Meaning of "Humanism" in the Renaissance.
 - (2) Effect of the revival of classic learning on mode of life, religion, and education.
 - (3) Chrysoloras and the introduction of the study of Greek into Italy and Europe.
5. The invention of printing with movable types leads to accuracy and increase in number of books produced. This is an aid to the spread of learning.
6. Renaissance art—the religious art of the Middle Ages gives way to revived Greek and Roman ideas of art:
- a. The work of Niccola of Pisa (1206-1280) and Giotto (1266(?) -1337).
 - b. Fifteenth century art in Florence, Rome and Venice.
 - c. Painting in the north of Europe.
7. Geographical discoveries in the Age of the Renaissance:
- a. Extent of geographical knowledge in the Middle Ages.
 - b. Europe's interest in the east the result of trade and of the voyages of Marco Polo and others.
 - c. The spice trade cut off by the conquests of the Turks.
 - d. The attempt of the Portuguese to reach India by circumnavigating Africa results successfully (1498).
 - e. The attempt of Columbus to reach India by sailing westward leads to the discovery of America (1492).
 - f. The extension of geographical knowledge by Magellan, the English navigators, and the Spanish in America.
8. The advance of Science:
- a. Copernicus (1473-1543) and the Copernican theory.
 - b. Opposition of the church to scientific advance.

- c. Miscellaneous inventions of various practical devices in 14th and 15th centuries (see Robinson, p. 352).

XXIII. EUROPE AT THE OPENING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Reasons why the German empire was not a strong state:

- a. Weakening effect of the struggle between the empire and papacy.
- b. Election of emperors prevents any one house from carrying on a continuous and progressive policy.
- c. When the Imperial title practically becomes hereditary, the Hapsburgs use it merely to increase their private possessions.
- d. Maximilian I (1493-1519) neglects Germany in order to strengthen his power in Italy.

2. The enormous power of Charles V:

- a. Moorish Spain conquered by the new Christian kingdoms in Spain (1085-1492).
- b. The marriages whereby Charles V becomes the most powerful monarch in Europe (Robinson, p. 359, note 1).
- c. Election of Charles as emperor, 1519.

3. The French Wars in Italy, 1494-1516:

- a. The first war, 1494-1498:
 - (1) Charles VIII of France (1483-1498) invades Italy to establish his inherited claim to the kingdom of Naples. Successful at first but later he loses Naples.
 - (2) Things to be noted during the war: (a) Savonarola and Charles VIII; (b) The Popes since the Great Schism; (c) Alexander VI and Caesar Borgia; (d) Results of the expedition of Charles VIII; (e) Savonarola's reforms in Florence; (f) Savonarola's death, 1498.
- b. The second war, 1498-1506. Louis XII of France (1498-1515) invaded Italy, secured Milan and Naples, and disposed of the latter to Ferdinand of Aragon.
- c. The third war, 1506-1514:
 - (1) Pope Julius II (1503-1513) forms the League of Cambray (1508) to humble Venice. He succeeds in doing so.

(2) He next forms the Holy League (1511) to expel France from Italy and Louis XII loses Milan and is forced to withdraw.

d. The fourth war, 1515-1516. Francis I of France (1515-1547) secures Milan after defeating the Swiss mercenaries at Marignano.

4. Sources of discord between France and the Hapsburgs:

- a. France is surrounded by Hapsburg possessions.
- b. Disputed claims on duchy and county of Burgundy and Milan.

5. Henry VIII of England (1509-1547):

- a. His political importance and desire to interfere in European affairs. His character and popularity in England.
- b. His marriage with Catherine of Aragon. Wolsey, his chief adviser.
- c. Henry's alliance sought by Charles V who bribes Wolsey.

6. Charles V in Germany (1520). The Diet of Worms.

XXIV. GERMANY BEFORE THE PROTESTANT REVOLT.

1. Introductory Statement:

- a. The Protestant revolution was preceded by two unsuccessful revolts: the Albigensian and the Hussite.
- b. The movement led by Luther in Germany and by others in England, France, and Switzerland, split Europe into two parties—the Catholics and Protestants.
- c. The widespread influence of the church. A revolt against it implied a general revolution.
- d. The Protestant revolution was not merely religious but also social and political.

2. Political Germany before the revolution:

- a. Evident disunion and lack of a strong central government.
- b. Germany was split up into between two and three hundred petty states.
- c. The emperor did not control his vassals. He was elected by seven powerful electors who did not need to render him obedience.

- d. The towns were in many cases independent states.
- e. The knights resorted to robbery. They hated the princes and free cities.
- f. The complexity of the political map of Germany led to many disputes. The central power was too weak to enforce its decision and neighborhood wars resulted.
- g. The efforts of the Diet or national assembly to remedy these evils were practically futile.

3. Religious conditions in Germany:

- a. Contradictions between Catholic and Protestant writers are largely explained by the corresponding contradiction in the then conditions in Germany.
- b. Four important characteristics of the times which serve to explain the Protestant revolution:
 - (1) Enthusiasm for religious ceremonies and observances, e. g., relics, treasury of "good works." Luther showed that these things prevent a true religious life.
 - (2) Many demanded a more spiritual religion. These and others were readers of the Bible. This element was a great support to the Lutheran movement.
 - (3) The scholars of the time (humanists) criticised the existing theology and wrote new and better books in harmony with the revelations of the Renaissance movement. Examples of humanist influence:
 - (a) Rudolph Agricola (1442-1485), the Petrarch of Germany.
 - (b) Attempt to reform the German universities.
 - (c) "Letters of Obscure Men" satirize monks and theologians.
 - (d) Erasmus of Rotterdam (1467(?) - 1536). His hope to reform the church by education.
 - (e) Erasmus' edition of the New Testament (1516) and his ideas of true religion and its enemies.
 - (f) The "Praise of Folly" in which Erasmus attacks the evils in the church.

- 4. Germany being drained of money to support a corrupt papal court. Ulrich von Hutten helps by his writings to stimulate discontent with such conditions.

XXV. MARTIN LUTHER AND HIS REVOLT AGAINST THE CHURCH.

1. Luther's life to 1517:

- a. Birth. Education. Monastic life does not satisfy Luther's religious needs. Justification by faith and not through "good works."
- b. Becomes a teacher in the University of Wittenberg, 1508. His visit to Rome, 1511. Luther teaches a new kind of theology.

2. Luther's theses on indulgences, 1517:

- a. Nature of indulgences. They were pardons by which the contrite sinner escaped temporary punishment in purgatory.
- b. Leo X (1513-1522) issues indulgences in connection with the building of St. Peters, sliding scale of prices.
- c. Tetzel, while selling these, made claims for them which Luther could not reconcile with the fundamentals of Christianity.
- d. Luther posts his ninety-five theses. Contents of theses.

3. The gradual break with Rome, 1517-1520:

- a. Luther does not heed the summons to Rome of Leo X.
- b. At the Leipzig debate Eck forces Luther to admit that a church council can err as was the case at Constance.
- c. Luther and the humanists natural allies. Contrast between views of Luther and Erasmus. Von Hutten supports Luther's cause.
- d. Three great tracts published in 1520 to make the struggle national.
 - (1) "Address to the German Nobility." Rulers and nobles of Germany should reform the church and not wait for Rome to do it.
 - (2) "Babylonian Captivity of the Church" attacks the sacraments of the Catholic church as interpreted by mediaeval theologians.
 - (3) "Freedom of the Christian," an account of his own doctrine.
- e. Luther excommunicated. Princes publish the bull reluctantly. Luther burns the bull at Wittenberg in presence of his students.

- f. Difference between Luther's and Hutten's plans for reform; latter for immediate destruction of the old church.

4. The Emperor Charles V and Luther:

- a. Charles V's want of sympathy with the German reformers.
- b. Luther before the Diet of Worms, 1521. His splendid defence.
- c. Edict of Worms (1521) declares Luther an outlaw and condemns his writings.
- d. Recognition by empire of obligation to carry out papal decrees. General disapproval of edict of Worms in Germany.

XXVI. COURSE OF THE PROTESTANT REVOLUTION IN GERMANY, 1521-1555.

1. From the Diet of Worms (1521) to the Diet of Speyer (1526):

- a. During this time the emperor is at war with Francis I, of France; this prevents him from dealing with Germany. German affairs move along in an undefined way.
- b. Luther begins a new translation of the Bible while at the Wartburg.
- c. General discussion of public questions in pamphlets and satires.
- d. Divergent notions of church reforms. Carlstadt, Luther and the Knights each propose different plans.
- e. By 1526 there are two leagues formed, one of Catholic princes and the other of Protestant princes.
- f. The Peasants' Revolt (1524-1525) was detrimental to Luther's cause in two ways: (1) The nobles attributed the revolt to Luther's rash statements against the princes and nobles; (2) the peasants lost faith in him when he advocated harsh measures to suppress the revolt.

2. From the Diet of Speyer (1526) to the Peace of Augsburg, 1555:

- a. The wars of Charles V continue and from 1526 to 1555 there is no permanent peace or settlement of the religious problem of Germany.
- b. The diet of Speyer (1526) gave the princes the right to determine the religion of their subjects until a general council could be called.

- c. At the Second diet of Speyer (1529) this arrangement gave way to the former Edict of Worms. This act called forth a "protest" from the princes who supported Luther, from which resulted the term "Protestant."
- d. At the diet of Augsburg (1530) the confession of Augsburg was drawn up.
- e. From 1530 to 1555 Charles V was busy with foreign wars, and his wars with the Protestants were not successful. In 1555 religious affairs were settled by the Peace of Augsburg.
- 3. The Peace of Augsburg (1555):**
 - a. Its provisions:
 - (1) Each prince given the right to choose the form of religion, either the Roman Catholic or Protestant Lutheran, of his subjects.
 - (2) Ecclesiastical princes who become Protestant must leave their property in the hands of the Catholic Church.
 - b. Its weaknesses:
 - (1) Only one group of Protestants was recognized: Calvinists and Zwinglians excluded.
 - (2) There was no power strong enough to enforce the provision in regard to the surrender of ecclesiastical lands.

XXVII. THE PROTESTANT REVOLT IN SWITZERLAND AND ENGLAND.

- 1. The origin of the Swiss Confederation; The Forest Cantons:**
 - a. Switzerland, a group of independent cantons, successfully defended its liberties against encroachments by the Hapsburgs and Charles the Bold. Gradually a confederation was formed and finally in 1499 Switzerland became independent from the empire.
- 2. Ulrich Zwingli (1484-1531); leads a revolt against the Church independent of the Lutheran movement:**
 - a. Zwingli's attack on the church and the traffic in Swiss soldiers.
 - b. Zwingli's reforms at Zurich and other towns in Switzerland.
 - c. The religious civil wars. Kappel 1531. Switzerland still divided in religion at death of Zwingli.

- 3. John Calvin (1509-1564) and the Presbyterian Church:**
 - a. The "Institutes of Christianity;" Calvin's great theological work.
 - b. Calvin's work at Geneva (1540). Calvinism in France and Scotland.
- 4. The gradual revolt of England from the Church. Primarily political and not religious:**
 - a. The preliminary work of the scholars; Colet, More, Erasmus.
 - b. Henry VIII's divorce from Catherine of Aragon leads to a revolt from Rome:
 - (1) Pope's refusal to divorce Henry. Fall of Wolsey in consequence (1529-30).
 - (2) By various acts Henry becomes head of the English Church and the Church of England becomes independent of the pope. No important changes in doctrine.
- 5. Henry's despotic government as evidenced by (a) his treatment of Sir Thomas More, (b) the dissolution of the monasteries, (c) the destruction of shrines and images, (d) his series of marriages.**
- 6. England becomes Protestant under Edward VI (1547-1553):**
 - a. Lutheran doctrines introduced. Book of Common Prayer and Articles of Belief. Edward's ministers go too far.
- 7. Queen Mary (1553-1558) and the Catholic reaction:**
 - a. Her marriage with Philip of Spain and its consequences. Philip barred from the government and succession.
 - b. The "Kneeling Parliament" of 1554 and the reconciliation with the pope. Possessions of clergy not restored, however.
 - c. Persecution of Protestants in Mary's later years. The martyrdom of Bishops Latimer and Ridley at Oxford.
 - d. Failure of Mary's plans to stamp out Protestantism and restore Catholicism. She went too far.

XXVIII. THE CATHOLIC REFORMATION—PHILIP II.

1. The Catholic Reformation had three agents: (a) the Council of Trent; (b) the Society of Jesus; (c) several secular princes:
 - a. The Council of Trent, 1545-1563:
 - (1) Composition—German Protestants do not attend.
 - (2) Its doctrinal work—practically no modification—simply a re-enforcement of the old creed, e g., the doctrine of good works, sacrament, Vulgate; the Catholic Church the sole authority for the interpretation of the Bible.
 - (3) Its reform measures—removal of abuses and educational improvements.
 - b. The Society of Jesus or Jesuit Order:
 - (1) Ignatius Loyola (1491-1556) the founder of the Jesuits:
 - (a) His early life and purpose in founding the order.
 - (b) Order founded in 1534; papal sanction given in 1540.
 - (2) Features of the order of especial importance:
 - (a) Organization, discipline and methods perfect in charter.
 - (b) Missions and explorations to remote parts of the world.
 - (3) Result of their work—they reclaimed much of southern Germany and Austria for Rome and checked growth of Protestantism.
 - (4) Accusation of unscrupulousness against the Jesuits; decline and gradual abolition of the order. (1773). Restored in 1814.
 - c. The work of Philip II of Spain for the Catholic cause:
 - (1) Division of the Hapsburg possessions between German and Spanish princes at abdication of Charles V (1555-56).
 - (2) Philip's fervent desire to stamp out Protestantism. His use of the Inquisition and every means of suppression. His great resources in the way of money, soldiers, and ships.
 - (3) Philip II and the Netherlands:

- (a) Characteristics of the Netherlands—Great commercial cities.
 - (b) Philip II's harsh attitude toward the Netherlands.
 - (c) The Inquisition and the resulting protest and rebellious acts of the Protestants. The "Beggars."
 - (d) Alva and the Council of Blood (1567-1573).
 - (e) The united Provinces (or northern provinces of the Spanish Netherlands) under William the Silent, Prince of Orange, gain their independence with the aid of the English. Independence acknowledged by Spain in 1648. (See Robinson, pp. 448-451.)
- 2. The Religious and Civil Wars in France, 1562-1598:**
- a. The beginnings of Protestantism in France—Lefevre (1450-1537).
 - b. Persecution under Francis I (1515-1547) and Henry II (1547-1559).
 - c. The period of the civil wars commences:
 - (1) The parties in the struggle:
 - (a) The Guises, Catholics and supporters of the royal house.
 - (b) The Bourbons, who ally themselves with the Huguenots in hopes of securing the French throne.
 - (2) Chief features of the wars:
 - (a) The massacre of Vassy which opens the war (1562) and the first stage of hostilities to 1570.
 - (b) Coligny's plan for a national war against Spain is frustrated by the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day (1572).
 - (c) The question of the succession and the war of the three Henrys (1585-89).
 - (d) Henry IV (1589-1610) becomes a Catholic and issues the Edict of Nantes (1598) granting toleration to Huguenots of France.
 - d. The good administration of Henry IV and his minister Sully is brought to a close by the assassination of Henry IV in 1610. Louis XIII (1610-1643) and Richelieu.
- 3. Success of the Protestant cause in England under Elizabeth (1558-1603):**

- a. Elizabeth restores the Protestant service and Prayer Book with some modifications. Retains old church organization.
 - b. Establishment of the Presbyterian Church in Scotland—John Knox.
 - c. English Protestantism threatened from the north by Scotland:
 - (1) Mary Stuart, the Scotch queen, becomes the hope of the Catholics.
 - (2) Mary's suspicious conduct leads to her abdication and flight to England in 1568. Is held a prisoner by Elizabeth.
 - (3) The Catholic rising in the north (1569) and the plans to depose Elizabeth fail, because no aid is received from the French and Spanish monarchs, who are busy with internal affairs and wars.
 - d. The attempt to make Ireland a Catholic base of attack on England is frustrated by Elizabeth's officials there.
 - e. The execution of Mary Queen of Scots (1587)—a politic act of Queen Elizabeth but hardly justifiable.
 - f. Defeat of the Spanish Armada (1588) puts an end to the danger to England from Spain and gives England the control of the sea.
4. **Concluding survey of the reign of Philip II:**
- a. Hopeful outlook for the Catholic cause at the opening of this reign.
 - b. The outcome of his policy not successful in spite of his resources.
 - c. Decline of Spain after the sixteenth century, due to bad domestic policy largely. The expulsion of the Moors a mistake. Spain rapidly becomes a second class power.

XXIX. THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR, 1618-1648.

- 1. **Causes and preliminaries of the Thirty Years' War:**
 - a. Weakness of the Peace of Augsburg (see ante p. 55).
 - b. Spread of Protestantism in the lands of Catholic princes.
 - c. Formation of the Protestant Union and the Catholic League, as a result of the affair at Donauwörth.
- 2. **The First Period of the War, 1618-1623. Operations in Bohemia:**

- a. Immediate cause—Protestant Bohemia revolts because the Hapsburgs break the agreement of 1609 as to religion.
 - b. The revolt fails—Frederick, elector of the Palatinate, who was chosen king, is defeated at White Hill, 1620.
- 3. The Second or Danish Period, 1625-1629; Wallenstein:**
- a. Christian IV of Denmark invades Germany and is defeated by Wallenstein, the new Catholic general.
 - b. The Edict of Restitution (1629) enforces and restores the conditions of the Peace of Augsburg. The dismissal of Wallenstein.
- 4. The Third or Swedish Period, 1630-1635; Gustavus Adolphus (1594-1632):**
- a. The Scandinavian countries and their history:
 - (1) Denmark, Norway, and Sweden united by Union of Calmar (1397).
 - (2) Sweden gains independence (1623) under Gustavus Vasa (1523-60).
 - b. Gustavus Adolphus invades Germany for both religious and political reasons, to support Protestantism and extend his dominions.
 - c. The Swedes are at first successful, Breitenfeld (1631) and Lutzen (1632), but after the death of Gustavus (1632) and withdrawal of Saxony their cause seems doomed. The murder of Wallenstein (1634) Nordlingen (1634).
- 5. The Fourth or Swedish-French Period, 1635-1648:**
- a. Catholic France under Richelieu aids the German Protestants to gain territory and to humiliate Austria.
 - b. Richelieu's plan was in the main successful (Robinson, p. 472).
- 6. Provisions of the treaties of Westphalia (1648) concerning (a) religious toleration, (b) lands held by Protestant princes, (c) the states of Germany, (d) the land cessions to Sweden and France.**
- 7. Disastrous results of the war for Germany in the destruction of villages, depopulation, and general exhaustion. Power of Brandenburg (Prussia) hopeful sign for future.**

XXX. STRUGGLE IN ENGLAND FOR CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT.

1. The question of an absolute or a limited monarchy in England.
2. James I, 1603-1625:
 - a. His belief in the "divine right" of kings causes trouble.
 - b. His foreign policy a failure through lack of consistency.
3. Literature in the time of Elizabeth and James I:
 - a. Shakespeare. Francis Bacon. King James' version of the Bible.
4. Charles I (1625-1649), and the struggle with Parliament:
 - a. His exactions and arbitrary acts rouse Parliament to exact his signature to the Petition of Right (1628).
 - b. Religious differences between Charles and the Commons. Dissolution of Parliament, 1629. Imprisonment of members.
 - c. Charles' personal government. Laud and Wentworth:
 - (1) Financial exactions; fines; "ship money," John Hampden's case.
 - (2) Religious affairs. Laud tries to force conformity. The opposition of the Puritans, Presbyterians and Independents. The Pilgrim Fathers and emigration to America.
 - d. The Long Parliament, 1640-1653:
 - (1) Summoned by Charles because he wanted money to carry on a war against the Scotch Presbyterians.
 - (2) The acts of the Long Parliament; execution of Strafford and Laud; the Triennial Bill; the Grand Remonstrance and other reforms.
 - (3) Attempt of king to arrest five members of Parliament.
5. The beginning of the Civil War, 1642; Cavaliers and Roundheads:
 - a. Charles' acts lead to civil war; composition of opposing forces. Oliver Cromwell.
 - b. Ultimate defeat of Royalists. Pride's Purge. Execution of Charles (1649)—Was it justifiable?

6. The Commonwealth (1649-1653) and Protectorate (1653-1660):

- a. The Rump Parliament proclaims England a republic. Cromwell, as head of the army, the real ruler. His position in England.
- b. Ireland and Scotland subdued (1650-52) by Cromwell and his lieutenants.
- c. The Navigation Act (1651) leads to a commercial war with Holland of an indecisive character.
- d. Cromwell dissolves the Long Parliament (1653) and is made Lord Protector by the Barebone or Nominated Parliament.
- e. Cromwell's successful foreign policy. Dunkirk and Jamaica acquired.
- f. Death of Cromwell (1658). His character and work.
- g. Collapse of the Protectorate under Richard Cromwell (1658-1660).

7. Charles II, 1660-1685:

- a. The Restoration; return of Charles II as King, 1660.
- b. Character of Charles II. Able but licentious and unscrupulous.
- c. Religious affairs. Persecution of Dissenters:
 - (1) The Act of Uniformity (1662) and the Dissenting ministers.
 - (2) Contest between Charles II and Parliament. His liberal measures are met by the Conventicle Act (1664) and the Test Act (1673) aimed against the Catholics and Dissenters.
- d. War with Holland. English conquests in America (New York).
- e. Relations of Charles II with Louis XIV of France.

8. James II, 1685-1688. The Great Revolution:

- a. The impolitic acts of James II bring on the revolution of 1688 whereby William III (1688-1702) Prince of Orange becomes King of England.
- b. By the Declaration of Rights (1688) the conventions of Parliament are granted by the English monarch and English constitutional liberties confirmed.

XXXI. THE ASCENDENCY OF FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIV.

1. The French monarchy under Louis XIV (1643-1715):

- a. Richelieu and Louis XIV make France a centralized state under absolute power with the dominating influence in European affairs.
- b. The theory of "divine right" of Kings in France—English and French attitude toward absolute monarchy compared.
- c. Personal characteristics of Louis XIV. Handsome and accomplished.
- d. The king's palace and the court life at Versailles.
- e. Colbert (1662-1683) reforms the financial administration and introduces industrial and commercial reforms.
- f. Art, literature and the development of the French language in the age of Louis XIV.

2. The Wars of Louis XIV and consequent exhaustion of France:

- a. His aim—to restore the "natural boundaries" of France.
- b. The war concerning the Spanish Netherlands, 1667-1668. The aggression of Louis in the Netherlands and Franche-Comte alarms Europe. The formation of the Triple Alliance leads to the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1668).
- c. The war with Holland (1672-1678). Louis receives Franche-Comte by the Peace of Nimwegen (1678).
- d. The war of the Palatinate (1689-1697). No acquisition of territory.
- e. The war of the Spanish Succession (1701-1714):
 - (1) Philip, grandson of Louis XIV becomes king of Spain and Louis supports the claim. The Grand Alliance (1701) is formed to oppose this (England, Holland, and the Empire).
 - (2) Important generals—Marlborough and Eugene of Savoy. The war in America. French defeats lead to peace.
 - (3) The treaty of Utrecht, 1713. Its effect on the map of Europe:
 - (a) Provisions concerning the Spanish kingship.
 - (b) Provisions concerning territory (see Robinson, p. 507).

3. Louis XIV and the Huguenots:

- a. Prosperous condition of the Huguenots ("as rich as a Huguenot").
- b. Louis' policy of suppression. Cruelty towards Huguenots.
- c. The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) and its effect.

4. The development of international law in Europe:

- a. Constant wars and prolonged peace negotiations emphasize the need of international law.
- b. The works of Grotius and Pufendorf a beginning of modern international law.

XXXII. THE RISE OF RUSSIA AND PRUSSIA.

1. From the fifth to the ninth century the Slavs invade and occupy eastern Europe. Various slavonic races and nations.
2. Beginnings of Russia—Rurik unites the Slavs around Novgorod in 862. Russia by the end of tenth century is Christianized (Greek church).
3. The Tartar invasion (1243-1480) makes Russia an Asiatic country in customs and institutions and retards her progress.
4. Peter the Great (1672-1725) and Russia:
 - a. The introduction of western (European) ideas. His travels in Europe; suppression of revolts; reform measures.
 - b. The struggle for territory on the Baltic Sea:
 - (1) Founding of St. Petersburg (1703) by Peter the Great.
 - (2) Wars of Russia with Charles XII of Sweden; at first a failure, later they result in the acquisition of the Baltic provinces by Russia.
 - c. Attempt to secure Black Sea territory unsuccessful.
5. The Hohenzollerns in Prussia and the growth of their Power:
 - a. Acquisition of duchy of Prussia by the elector of Brandenburg.
 - b. Elector of Brandenburg becomes king of Prussia (1701).
 - c. Two specially important Hohenzollern rulers:
 - (1) The Great Elector, 1640-1688; made Brandenburg a strong power.

- (2) Frederick William I of Prussia (1713-1740) prepared the way for Frederick the Great.
6. Austria and her contest with the Turks (see Robinson, pp. 517-18).
7. The War of the Austrian Succession, 1740-1748:
 - a. The arrangement of Charles VI for the succession of Maria Theresa (Pragmatic Sanction).
 - b. Frederick the Great (1740-1786) seizes Silesia solely for aggrandizement.
8. In the Seven Years War (1756-1763) Frederick the Great succeeded in maintaining his hold on Silesia and his claim to prominence in Germany and Europe by his military successes.
9. The weakness and defective constitution of Poland explains the first partition of Poland (1772) among Russia, Austria and Prussia. Subsequent partitions (1793 and 1795).

XXXIII. THE EXPANSION OF ENGLAND.

1. England lays the foundation of her commercial greatness in the eighteenth century. Founding of her colonial empire.
2. Two great questions settled by the accession of William and Mary, religious and constitutional.
3. Home affairs in England, 1702-1727:
 - a. Queen Anne (1702-1714). The union of England with Scotland (1707).
 - b. George I (1714-1727). The king ceases to attend cabinet meetings. This becomes a precedent which has since been observed.
4. Foreign affairs, 1713-1748. Isolation of England:
 - a. England and the "balance of power" under William III.
 - b. Peace under Walpole as prime minister (1721-1742).
 - c. England in the war of the Austrian succession (1740-1748).
 - d. The failure of the "Young Pretender" (Charles Stuart) in 1745.
5. The struggle for colonial supremacy 1740-1763:
 - a. Colonial supremacy of Spain and Portugal at first shaken by Holland in the East Indies and in America.
 - b. England and France settle in north America and become rivals.

- c. The struggle for India; early history of the peninsula:
 - (1) French and English settlements in India gradually increase.
 - (2) Leaders of the struggle—Dupleix and Clive compared.
 - (3) The victories of Clive render England's influence supreme in India. "Black Hole" of Calcutta. Plassey (1757).
 - (4) The gains of England in the Seven Years War—in the Mediterranean, America, the West Indies and India.
- 6. **The American Revolution, 1776-1783:**
 - a. Disputes concerning taxation and other questions lead to the Declaration of Independence (1776) by the Continental Congress.
 - b. With the aid of France the Americans are able to establish their independence of England, 1783. Louisiana and Spain.
- 7. **Results in Europe of wars between 1713 and 1783:**
 - a. The rise of Prussia, which became a first-rate power and in the nineteenth century unified Germany into an empire.
 - b. The rise of Russia which, in conjunction with Austria, began a policy of aggression at the expense of declining Turkey. This leads to the "Eastern Question" of to-day.
 - c. England lost the United States. But the Anglo-Saxon race gained supremacy in America and India over the French and others.
 - d. France under Louis XV (1715-1774) slowly declines both at home and abroad. This explains in part the outbreak of the French Revolution (1789) and the career of Napoleon.

XXXIV. THE EVE OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

- 1. The "Ancien Regime," the state of France preceding the Revolution, is the chief cause of the Revolution. Most of the elements of the "Ancien Regime" were conducive to discontent, being vicious survivals of the feudal period:
 - a. France not a well-organized state in the eighteenth century:

- (1) Differences of customs, laws and government in the various provinces.
- (2) Interior customs duties hampered trade, and commerce greatly.
- (3) Inequalities of taxation as illustrated by the salt tax, "Gabelle".
- b. The privileged classes—the clergy and nobility—were exempt from most taxes, especially the "taille," and had other privileges (see Robinson, pp. 540-43).
- c. The unprivileged—the "third estate." The condition of the French peasant, although miserable in many cases, was better in general than that of the peasants of other countries. France had a revolution because of the existing popular discontent with social and political conditions.
- d. The despotic power of the king and its exercise:
 - (1) He was absolute in making laws, levying taxes and expending the public revenues. Enormous expenditure of Louis XV.
 - (2) He had full power over his subjects, e. g., "lettres de cachet."
- e. Limitations on the king's power. Other factors in the government:
 - (1) The "parlements" by means of their protests became the champions of French rights and helped prepare the way for the Revolution.
 - (2) Public opinion as shaped by pamphlets and the works of the literary men was a check and abuse of power. Censorship of the press.
- 2. The work of the literary men in France in the eighteenth century:**
 - a. Voltaire (1694-1778) popularizes reason; attacks the church which was the greatest obstacle to the free exercise of reason. His wide influence and popularity. Although unjust in his criticism of the church he prepared the way for the reform of the church.
 - b. Rousseau (1712-1778). In his famous book, "The Social Contract," he discusses the rights of the sovereign people and condemns absolute monarchy.
 - c. Montesquieu (1689-1755). In his "Spirit of Laws" he points out the superiority of English over French political institutions.

- d. The Physiocrats—or the men of the new science of political economy. They argue against all government restrictions on trade and manufacture. “Laissez faire” policy.
- 3. The reign of Louis XVI from 1774 to 1788—a Struggle with Finances:**
 - a. France on the verge of bankruptcy at the accession of Louis XVI.
 - b. The reforms of Turgot, controller-general (1774-1776). He advocates and practices economy, and introduces economic reforms. Before he is able to carry out all his plans he is removed through court influence.
 - c. Necker, director of finance (1776-1781):
 - (1) Borrows large amounts to carry on war against England on behalf of the United States.
 - (2) Publishes a financial report which shows the income and expenditures of the French monarchy, and is eagerly read.
 - d. Calonne, controller-general, 1783-1787. By lavish expenditure he brings France to the verge of bankruptcy which necessitates the calling of the Assembly of Notables and precipitates the Revolution.

XXXV. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

- 1. The unsuccessful meeting of the Notables (1786-87):**
 - a. The financial straits of France necessitate the summoning of the Notables or great men of France. Calonne denounces prevalent abuses and suggests reforms.
 - b. The Notables refuse to ratify Calonne's reform measures; both he and the notables are dismissed by the king.
- 2. Louis XVI attempts to reform the finances by aid of Parlement. He fails and is forced to summon the Estates General (Robinson, pp. 559-560).**
- 3. Preliminaries to the meeting of the Estates General:**
 - a. General ignorance as to character and workings of the Estates General.
 - b. The old system of voting and objections to it on part of third estate.
 - c. The “cahiers,” their nature, contents and importance.

- d. The prevalent desire for a constitutional instead of an absolute monarchy shown by the "cahiers."
- 4. The Transition to the National Assembly (1789):**
 - a. Dispute between the Third Estates and the privileged orders as to manner of organization and deliberation.
 - b. The third estate organizes the National Assembly; "Tennis Court" oath; many clergy and nobles join the Third Estate in the Assembly.
- 5. Violence and Bloodshed in Paris lead to Reforms:**
 - a. The taking of the Bastille (1789) and the formation of the National Guards. Establishment of communes in Paris and other cities to replace former system and to maintain order.
 - b. Disorder in the provinces leads to general abolition of serfdom and feudal customs by the Assembly (August 4-5, 1789). All privileges and inequalities are swept away.
 - c. The ancient provinces give way to the present departments.
 - d. The Declaration of the Rights of Man states the rights of the individual citizen. (This became the preamble to Constitution of 1791.) (See Robinson, p. 576.)
- 6. The King, suspected of hostility to the Revolution, is taken from Versailles to Paris by the mob (October 5-6, 1789). Violent conduct of mob toward the Queen. National Assembly also moves to Paris.**
- 7. The National Assembly and the Church:**
 - a. The government confiscates the property of the church and issues "assignats" on security of these lands.
 - b. By the Civil Constitution of the Clergy the French Church is placed entirely under the control of the state.
 - c. Those ecclesiastics who refuse to take the oath of allegiance to the constitution are harshly treated. Revolution tending towards violence and oppression.

XXXVI. THE FIRST FRENCH REPUBLIC.

- 1. The difference between the first and second French Revolutions.**
- 2. Forces aiding in the establishment of the First French Republic:**
 - a. Certain acts of the king and his friends which discredit royalty:
 - (1) The emigrant nobles—their foolish conduct discredits the king and queen in France.
 - (2) The flight of the king and queen to Varennes, June 21, 1791. A mistake.
 - (3) The Declaration of Pillnitz (August, 1791) and the threat of foreign interference in French affairs.
 - b. The gradual growth of republican ideas fostered by:
 - (1) The newspapers. Marat's "Friend of the People;" the "Moniteur."
 - (2) The political clubs, especially the "Jacobins." Their influence.
- 3. Steps in the establishment of the First French Republic:**
 - a. The measures of the Legislative Assembly against the emigrant nobles and the non-juring clergy. Hostility of church aroused.
 - b. The Legislative Assembly precipitates a war with Austria and then with Europe (1792-1793).
 - c. Action toward the king of the Legislative Assembly and people:
 - (1) Louis is suspected of treasonable acts and forced to declare war upon Austria (1792). Coalition against France.
 - (2) The insurrection of August 10, 1792, gives occasion to abolish the monarchy and establish a republic (September 22, 1792).
 - (3) The September Massacres and the progress of the war.
 - (4) The king's supposed complicity with foreign powers leads to his trial and execution (January 21, 1793).
- 4. The War with Austria and Prussia and its Results:**
 - a. The French defeat the invading Prussians and Austrians and take portions of Germany, the Spanish Netherlands and Savoy.

- b. The proposal of the Convention to aid all countries to rid themselves of their monarchs leads to declaration of war with England (February 1, 1793).
- c. The united action of the allies together with the desertion of Dumouriez cause the defeat of the French troops (1793).
- d. These defeats lead to the establishment of the Committee of Public Safety (April, 1793).

5. The Reign of Terror (June 2, 1793-July 27, 1794):

- a. Conditions making the Terror a political necessity:
 - (1) The invasion of France by foreign enemies creates need of strong government.
 - (2) Dissension in the Convention—Girondists (conservative republicans) versus the Mountain (extreme republicans).
 - (3) The threatened civil war—revolts of the peasants of Brittany and the cities against the Convention.
- b. The work of the Committee of Public Safety—Girondists expelled; revolts suppressed; English and Austrians repulsed.
- c. The Revolutionary Tribunal and the guillotine used to suppress all opposition to republican ideas.
- d. A schism in the party of the Mountain leads to Robespierre's dictatorship; his colleagues in self-defense cause his fall (July 27, 1794). This ends the Terror.

- 6. The End of the Convention.** (a) Reaction after overthrow of Robespierre. (b) Constitution of the Year III. (c) The work of the Convention ended by its dissolution (October, 1795); it had carried France through a crisis in her history (Robinson, p. 591). (d) The Directory does little to reform affairs in France and order not restored until Napoleon seizes power in 1800.

XXXVII. NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

- 1. Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821). Career in Corsica; military training; commander-in-chief of the army of Italy 1796.
- 2. The Campaign in Italy (1796-1797) and its Importance:
 - a. Defeat of the Austrian troops and siege of Mantua. Austria threatened with invasion.

- b. Treaty of Campo-Formio (1797) and creation of the Cisalpine Republic out of the states of northern Italy. Venice given to Austria.
3. **Conditions explaining Bonaparte's successful career:**
 - a. He understood the characteristics and needs of the French people (Robinson, pp. 595-96).
 - b. He was a genius and adopted any and every means to attain his ends.
 - c. Political conditions in France and Europe made his wonderful career possible. No really strong European states to check him.
4. **The Egyptian and Syrian Campaign:**
 - a. Napoleon's and the Directory's reasons for undertaking the expedition.
 - b. Success in Egypt. Failure in Syria. Destruction of the French fleet by Nelson in battle of the Nile (1798).
 - c. Return of Napoleon to Paris leaving his army in Egypt.
5. **The Coup d' etat of the 18th Brumaire (November 9, 1799):**
 - a. The bad and corrupt government of the Directory.
 - b. Nature of the "coup d' etat." Napoleon becomes First Consul of France.
 - b. The constitution of the year VIII. All government centers in the First Consul. The Council of State and Administration. Plebiscite accepts new government.
 - c. Bonaparte generally acceptable to the French as First Consul. Testimony of the Swedish envoy (see Robinson, p. 600).
6. **Foreign war, 1800-1802. Re-establishment of Prestige of France:**
 - a. Successful foreign war needed to restore order and prosperity at home.
 - b. War against Austria—the passage of the Alps; Marengo and Hohenlinden.
 - c. General pacification by treaties of 1801. Cession of Louisiana to France by Spain and sale of territory to United States by Napoleon later.
7. **Changes in Germany by Treaty of Luneville (February, 1801):**
 - a. Cession of the left bank of the Rhine to France necessitates indemnification to princes.

- b. Church lands and free imperial cities used to furnish indemnity. Importance to Germany of the redistribution of 1803 (see Robinson, p. 604).
- 3. **Extension of French territory by the acquisition of the Austrian Netherlands, left bank of Rhine, and Piedmont. Napoleon's policy of creating dependent republics, examples.**

XXXVIII EUROPE AND NAPOLEON. THE FIRST FRENCH EMPIRE.

1. **Napoleon's reforms; constructive statesmanship; his autocracy:**
 - a. The adjustment of relations with the pope and the church. The Concordat of 1801 recognizes pope as head of French church.
 - b. Emigrant nobles permitted to return. Old habits resumed. Napoleon's government in harmony with French traditions and desires.
 - c. The "Code Napoleon" (1804). A codification of old French law as modified by the changes of the Revolution. Its use in modern states. Criminal and commercial codes.
 - d. Napoleon consul for life (1802); Emperor (1804). New French nobility.
 - e. Censorship of the press under first empire.
2. **Reasons for the Napoleonic wars:**
 - a. War was necessary for the maintenance of Napoleon's position. He dreams of becoming emperor of Europe (Robinson, pp. 609-10).
 - b. England and the other European nations oppose his aggression in order to maintain the balance of power, to protect their commerce, and to prevent the spread of revolutionary institutions.
3. **The wars from 1803 to 1805:**
 - a. The renewal of the war with England (1803) gives Napoleon an opportunity to collect a large army at Boulogne.
 - b. This army of invasion he uses successfully against Austria and Russia. Austerlitz (1805). Treaty of Pressburg.
4. **Changes in Germany, 1806:**
 - a. Holy Roman Empire dissolved and Francis II becomes Emperor of Austria.

- b. Confederation of the Rhine formed under leadership of Napoleon, who becomes "Protector."
 - c. Occupation of kingdom of Naples (1806) and conferring of the crown on brother Joseph. Another brother, Louis, king of Holland.
 - d. The composition of "the real French Empire" of Napoleon.
- 5. War with Prussia and Russia, 1806-1807:**
- a. Prussia forced into war with France.
 - b. Defeats of Prussia (1806) and Russia (1807).
 - c. Treaties of Tilsit, 1807. Grand Duchy of Warsaw and kingdom of Westphalia formed for Napoleon's friends and relatives.
- 6. Napoleon's Attempt to ruin England's Commerce:**
- a. The continental blockade. An attempt to ruin English trade. The Berlin Decrees and the paper blockade.
 - b. Disastrous effects on American commerce of blockading policy.
 - c. Effects on France and Europe harmful to Napoleon.
- 7. French home affairs:**
- a. Public works and educational reforms. The Legion of Honor founded as a nobility of merit.
 - b. Napoleon's despotic measures. Political prisoners in France. Vanity of the Emperor.
- 8. Wars in the Spanish Peninsula (1808):**
- a. The Spaniards, with their national enthusiasm aroused, refuse to accept Joseph Bonaparte as king.
 - b. This revolt is one of the causes of Napoleon's ultimate failure. Temporary subjugation of Spain.
- 9. War with Austria, (1809):**
- a. Austria taking advantage of Napoleon's difficulty in Spain, declares war. Defeated at Wagram, 1809.
 - b. French territory in 1810 greatly increased by confiscations.
 - c. Napoleon divorces Josephine and marries Maria Louisa of Austria.
- 10. The Decline and Collapse of the Napoleonic Power (1812-1815):**
- a. The Strained Relations between France and Russia lead to the disastrous campaign of 1812 (Robinson, pp. 620-21).

- b. Reformed and regenerated Prussia, together with Austria and Russia meet and defeat Napoleon's new army at Leipzig, October, 1813.
- c. Napoleon's defeat results in the loss of Germany, Holland and Spain.
- d. The allies invade France and force Napoleon to abdicate, 1814. His exile at Elba.
- e. Napoleon returns to France, collects a new army, but is defeated at Waterloo, June, 1815. St. Helena.

XXXIX. EUROPE AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA.

1. **The Reconstruction of Europe after Napoleon's fall:**
 - a. The work of the congress of Vienna (November, 1814-June, 1815):
 - (1) The dynastic and territorial arrangements for France. Bourbons restored.
 - (2) Arrangements concerning the Netherlands, Switzerland, Italy and Germany (see Robinson, pp. 625-26).
 - (3) Dispute concerning Poland and Saxony settled by a compromise.
 - b. Changes in the map of Europe since 1815 (Robinson, pp. 627-28).
 - c. Influence of Napoleon seen in the spread of revolutionary reforms. Reactionary policy in the smaller states of Europe.
2. **France, 1815-1830. The overthrow of the Orleanists:**
 - a. The restored Bourbon king, Louis XVIII (1814-1824), adopts the changes of the Revolution and embodies them in the Charter of 1814.
 - b. Charles X. (1824-1830) favoring the reactionary party is overthrown by the revolution of 1830 and Louis Philippe of the Orleans house placed on the throne.
4. **Germany, 1815-1848:**
 - a. Three chief results of Napoleon's influence in Germany were:
 - (1) Disappearance of most of the little states. Only thirty-eight in 1815.
 - (2) Advantageous position of Prussia through acquisition of new territory in Germany.
 - (3) The aroused national spirit demands constitutional government by written constitution.

- b. The German Confederation of 1815. Merely a union of independent princes which was dominated by Austria. The demands for a national and constitutional government were not satisfied. Discontent of liberals in Germany.
 - c. The outbreaks of the student political organizations are met by the reactionary "Carlsbad Resolutions" (1819). Secret societies, freedom of the press and of speech are suppressed (Robinson, pp. 633-35).
 - d. The granting of constitutions in south Germany (1818-20) and the formation of the Zollverein (1833) under Prussian leadership indicative of progress.
- 5. Italy, 1815-1848:**
- a. Metternich opposes the revolutionary movements in Spain and Italy. He considers Italy a "Geographical Expression." To what extent was this so? Various states and powers in Italy.
 - b. Napoleon's reforms in Italy swept away after 1815. The Italian patriots led by the "Carbonari" and other societies, work for individual liberty, constitutional government, national unity, and independence from Austrian control. Threatened revolution.
 - c. The attempts in Naples, Sardinia and other Italian states (1820-1830) to secure constitutional government suppressed by Austria troops who become upholders of absolutism.
 - d. Hopeful signs in Italy in spite of weakness of the liberal movement:
 - (1) England and France protest against Austrian intervention to prevent reforms—and condemn Metternich's policy.
 - (2) The Society of "Young Italy" as organized by Mazzini (1805-1872) was educating Italians to strike for a national, constitutional government, free from Austrian control. Importance of the idea of Italian unity.
 - e. The papal plan for reform does not succeed. Pius IX (1846-1878).
 - f. Metternich dominates Italy until 1848, without serious difficulty.

7. Two Important Events Encourage Liberals of Europe:

- a. The Greek Revolution (1821-1829) resulting in Greek independence from Turkey and creation of modern Greek kingdom.
- b. Belgium becomes an independent kingdom in 1831 by revolt from the domination of Holland.

XL. THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY.

1. The General Revolutionary Movement in western Europe in 1848.

2. The Revolution of 1848 in France and the Second French Empire:

- a. The unpopularity of Louis Philippe leads to his expulsion and the establishment of the Second French Republic (February 27, 1848).
- b. Temporary success of the social democrats in introducing a socialistic program. Troubles at Paris.
- c. Louis Napoleon elected President in 1848; by a "coup d'etat" he becomes Emperor (1852).

3. The revolutions in the other States of Europe:

- a. Metternich's power in Austria overthrown; Hungary and Bohemia are granted reform constitutions and Austrian provinces promised similar ones.
- b. Austria is expelled from Italy and constitutions are granted to several Italian states by their rulers. Movement for Italian unity and freedom begun in earnest.
- c. Several German states are granted constitutions and the reorganization of the German confederation is begun.
- d. King of Prussia shows constitutional inclination. Assembly at Frankfort.
- e. Successes are largely nullified by Austria inasmuch as
 - (1) The disagreement as to the reform program in Germany gives Austria a chance to recuperate and then reassert control of Germany.
 - (2) The lack of unity among Italian leaders enables Austria to suppress the revolt by force of arms (July, 1848). The republicans assume the lead in Italy.

- (3) The race question in Austria (Bohemians versus Germans in Bohemia; Slavs versus Hungarians in Hungary) enables Austria to put down the revolutionary movements in her own realms. (Robinson, pp. 648-50).
- f. However, in 1867, Hungary won her independence. Piedmont retained her constitution under King Victor Emmanuel (Robinson, pp. 650-51). Prussia was given a constitution, and both Piedmont and Prussia began internal reforms which later enabled them to unite Italy and Germany respectively and free themselves from Austrian interference. Decline of Austrian influence after 1851.
- 4. The unification of Italy under Victor Emmanuel and Cavour:**
- Development of Piedmont under Cavour (Note—Piedmont, Savoy, Sardinia, all stand for the same territory). Participation in Crimean War as ally of France and England (1853-56).
 - Napoleon III to gain popularity, helps Victor Emmanuel expel the Austrians. Magenta and Solferino.
 - Napoleon III alarmed by Italian successes, hopes to prevent the formation of a strong kingdom. But by agitation, conquest and popular vote, most of the Italian states are united with the kingdom of Italy in 1860. Garibaldi in Sicily and Naples.
 - Austria still held Venice and the Pope still held Rome (Venice was incorporated into Italy in 1866 and Rome in 1870).
 - First meeting of Italian Parliament at Turin (1861).
- 5. Unification of Germany in 1866 by Bismarck and William I:**
- Preparatory step. Plan of William I (1861-1888) to strengthen the army. Bismarck and his struggle with the Prussian parliament.
 - Beginning of the solution. The Schleswig-Holstein affair. Prussia and Austria jointly attack Denmark and get control of the two provinces (Bismarck's diplomacy, Robinson, pp. 658-59).
 - Increase of strained relation between Prussia and Austria. Assured of the neutrality of Napoleon III, Prussia declares the confederation dissolved, defeats Austria in war (Sadowa) and forms the north German confederation (1866).

- d. The constitution of the north German confederation (Robinson, pp. 660-61).
- 6. The Franco-Prussian War, 1870-1871. Its Causes and Results:**
 - a. Causes:
 - (1) The disappointed hopes of Napoleon.
 - (3) The candidacy of Leopold of Hohenzollern for the Spanish crown. Trivial causes.
 - b. Prussia, with her superior military forces, and backed by German states, defeats France at every point. Metz, Sedan, Siege of Paris, etc. Collapse of Second Empire.
 - c. Cession of Alsace and Lorraine and the five billion franc indemnity. Occupation of France by Germans until sum agreed on was paid.
- 7. France since 1871. The Third Republic:**
 - a. Insurrection of the Paris Commune (1871). A Reign of Terror.
 - b. The National Assembly (1871-1875) and the new constitution.
 - c. The three constitutional laws of 1875 are the basis of the present French republic with its President, Senate and House of Deputies.
 - d. Permanent character of the French government in 19th century in spite of changes in the constitution. Explanation of this.
- 8. Final Unification of Germany, 1871. The New Empire:**
 - a. The South German states join the North German Federation and form the German Empire (January, 1871) at Versailles.
 - b. Predominance of Prussia in the present German Empire. Character of the Imperial Constitution.
- 9. Rome added to the Kingdom of Italy, 1870. Position of the pope.**
- 10. Southeastern Europe. The gradual formation of independent states out of most of Turkey in Europe:**
 - a. The successful revolt of Servia (1817) and Greece (1821-1829).
 - b. The Crimean War (1853-56); no decrease of Turkish territory but Roumania becomes practically independent in 1859.
 - c. The Bulgarian atrocities lead to the Russo-Turkish War, 1877. Russia is robbed of the fruits of her

victory by the Congress of Berlin (1878). Independence of Servia, Montenegro, and Roumania and other changes. Turkey is shorn of all territory but a narrow strip. Constantinople.

XLI. EUROPE OF TODAY.

- 1. The growth of "pure Science" in Modern Times:**
 - a. Modern scientific methods compared with mediaeval methods.
 - b. Astrology grows into astronomy and alchemy grows into chemistry.
 - c. Discovery that the universe follows natural laws. Growth of the spirit of rationalism.
 - d. Galileo (1564-1642) and his telescope and what it accomplished for science.
 - e. Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727) and his discovery of the law of universal gravitation.
 - f. Development of the microscope and its effect on science.
 - g. Advance in medical science very marked—Bacteriology, etc.
- 2. The Industrial Revolution, in the 18th and 19th centuries:**
 - a. Scientific discovery and invention begin to be applied to affairs of daily life about the middle of the eighteenth century.
 - b. Two things necessary for the industrial revolution:
 - (1) Cheap iron for the development of machinery.
 - (2) Motive power. James Watt's discovery of the steam engine. The use of steam cheapens iron, coal and steel and revolutionizes industry.
 - c. Effects produced by modern inventions:
 - (1) The factory system supplants domestic industry, causes division of labor and increased production of goods.
 - (2) New means of communication—steamboats, railroads, mail service and banking. These have helped the development of commerce and industry.
 - d. Results of the industrial revolution of the 19th century:
 - (1) The rapid growth of towns and increase of population (Reasons for growth of towns, Robinson, pp. 679-80).

- (2) Abolition of most of the restrictions on trade and industry.
 - (3) The modern labor problem. Governments as well as labor unions take steps to protect the rights of labor.
 - (4) The gradual quickening of the intelligence of the working classes. This had led to giving the lower classes a share in the government.
- 4. Liberal movement in Religion and Education (Robinson, pp. 683-84).**
- 5. Warfare in Recent Time:**
- a. The standing armies and vast navies of Europe.
 - b. The occasions for warfare are chiefly colonial affairs.
 - c. The decay of Spain as a colonial power.
 - d. The expansion of England in Africa, the Mediterranean and Australia. Dominion of Canada and Commonwealth of Australia.
 - e. The Expansion of Russia in Asia—the Far Eastern question.
 - f. Hopeful signs of the decrease of warfare.
 - (1) The fears caused by the prospect of war prevent its frequent occurrence.
 - (2) The Hague Peace Conference 1899.
- 6. "Conclusion": The enormous progress made in the 19th century in all fields of human activity. Problems for the future, arising from the growth of democracy, development of industry and commerce, and growth of great cities, which the 20th century must try to solve.**

4

1

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN



3 9015 02204 2413

